

THE SCHOOL REVIEW

A JOURNAL OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

VOLUME XLIII

NOVEMBER 1935

NUMBER 9

Educational News and Editorial Comment

THE CO-OPERATIVE STUDY OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL STANDARDS UNDER WAY

This journal has previously reported the initial efforts during the last few years to launch a large-scale co-operative study of standards for secondary schools. With funds contributed by the regional standardizing agencies, work had been begun in a modest way on preliminary aspects of the project, but it was apparent that major efforts at establishing a better basis of standardization must await provision of ampler resources. Such resources have been assured by one of the foundations, at least for the period of the current school year, and the project is now fully under way.

At a meeting of the executive committee in charge of the study held early in September, accomplishments to date were reviewed, reports of subcommittees heard, and plans and organization for the year's work formulated. Most of the reports of the several subcommittees had to do with aspects of the school, namely, pupil-activity programs, staff, plant, curriculum, instruction, supervision, administration, library, guidance, articulation, school and community relations, testing and measuring, research, and institutional growth. Most of the reports included treatment of guiding principles and essential features in the aspects under consideration.

A special committee on procedures proposed aims to be considered in planning the procedures, the organization for carrying out the procedures (involving a central body, regional committees, and state committees), and materials and their uses. Under the proposals for materials were included suggestions for a manual and check lists, profile chart (after the manner being used in evaluating colleges by the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools), and a summary blank form. The program of procedure is not to stop with evaluation and accrediting but will aim at stimulation and improvement in the schools, a respect in which former procedures in standardization have been conspicuously lacking. The report of this subcommittee on procedures also contemplates that the problem of financing will revert to the co-operating regional associations, the actual cost to be shared by all interested parties, such as the schools, the associations, and state departments.

It is not to be assumed from this summary of plans that standards are ready for application. The chief accomplishment in this area is decision on the aspects (named above) of the school for which standards are to be established. Investigation to determine standards seems to be the large task to which the study is now committed.

Arrangements for conduct of the investigation include the appointment of Professor Walter C. Eells, of Stanford University, as co-ordinator of research and the appointment of M. L. Altstetter as educational specialist to assist the co-ordinator. Necessary secretarial and clerical help is also being provided. The headquarters office is 744 Jackson Place, Washington, D.C. Headquarters and resources have been provided for the current school year, but it is not conceivable that a project of such magnitude and importance can be rounded out within such a brief period. It is to be hoped that additional funds will be made available for completing the undertaking.

THE YOUTH COMMISSION OF THE AMERICAN COUNCIL ON EDUCATION

A project of even greater promise of significance for secondary education than the Co-operative Study of Secondary-School Stand-

ards is that to be supervised by the Youth Commission recently organized by the American Council on Education. The project has been made possible by a "substantial grant" by the General Education Board.

In announcing the establishment of the Youth Commission, George F. Zook, president of the council, made the following statement.

Recent social and economic changes in the United States have given rise to difficulties in the care and education of young people with which existing institutions are quite unprepared to deal adequately. The changes not only have greatly intensified the problems which confront the schools, but also have created an urgent need of protection and further education for millions of youth whom the schools are not reaching.

Without some provision for continued basic planning to meet this situation, there is serious danger that present conditions may constitute a fundamental threat to the national welfare. I believe that the public and the great majority of workers in this field are deeply conscious of this danger and will welcome a comprehensive and thoughtfully conceived program for meeting it.

The commission should endeavor to integrate contributions that have been made or are being made for the solution of this problem, to stimulate new contributions in fields hitherto unexplored, and to encourage translation of the best that is known into practice on a wide scale.

The fourteen members of the Youth Commission are: Will W. Alexander, of Atlanta, outstanding leader in the field of race relations; Newton D. Baker, eminent attorney of Cleveland; Ralph Budd, of Chicago, president of the Burlington Railroad; Lotus D. Coffman, president of the University of Minnesota; Dorothy Canfield Fisher, well-known writer of Arlington, Vermont; Willard E. Givens, secretary of the National Education Association, with headquarters in Washington, D.C.; Henry I. Harriman, of Boston, past president of the Chamber of Commerce of the United States; Robert M. Hutchins, president of the University of Chicago; Chester H. Rowell, editor of the *San Francisco Chronicle*; William F. Russell, dean of Teachers College, Columbia University; Edith B. Stern, civic leader of New Orleans; John W. Studebaker, United States Commissioner of Education; Miriam Van Waters, superintendent of the State Reformatory for Women at Framingham, Massachusetts; and Matthew Woll, vice-president of the American Federation of Labor. The membership includes five educators and

nine persons chiefly identified with other walks in life. Readers of this journal who are principals or teachers in secondary schools may note that these institutions are not directly represented, but the facts deserve noting that some members of the commission have had secondary-school experience and that the whole project is much broader than secondary education even though it applies to that school level.

A fourfold undertaking was outlined in the preliminary statement of the project which was presented by the American Council on Education.

1. A comprehensive analysis of the characteristics of youth and an evaluation of the influences to which they are subject.
2. The continuous study of commonly accepted goals in the care and education of American youth, for the purpose of determining the adequacy of these goals in relation to present social, economic, and political trends.
3. The investigation of agencies concerned with the youth problem and the eventual recommendation of procedures which seem to influence young people most effectively.
4. The systematic popularization and promotion of desirable plans of action through conferences, publications, and demonstrations of promising procedures.

As director of the staff of the project, the Youth Commission appointed Homer P. Rainey, president of Bucknell University since 1931, who had previously been president of Franklin College and professor of education at the University of Oregon. His statement to the Youth Commission when accepting the post throws further light on the scope and nature of the project.

I greatly appreciate this opportunity of working with you and for you on this enterprise. I sincerely believe that this project is the most significant step that has been undertaken to plan a comprehensive program for the care and education of American youth.

We are charged to "take account of the needs of all young people, whether they are reached by existing social agencies or not, who are approximately twelve years of age and upward." This problem is so vast that it almost baffles one to know where to take hold. Our first problem, therefore, is to define rather carefully the limits of our task. The following procedure is suggested for your approval.

1. We shall need to know in as great detail as possible what is the youth problem. We should, therefore, make a comprehensive study of the problem and formulate a composite picture of it.

2. There are many agencies working in this field, and there is a vast amount of data bearing upon this subject. We shall want to study and evaluate the contributions which these agencies are making.
3. We should start at once a study of the characteristics of youth, as suggested by the committee of the American Council.
4. We are commissioned to make a critical evaluation of the goals of our great educational system and to formulate a set of desirable objectives for the entire field of secondary education.
5. We shall need to consider the leisure-time activities of youth and to make definite recommendations to the American people for the development of leisure-time programs for their respective communities.
6. We must study also the problems of secondary and general education in rural districts and small towns, for approximately two-thirds of all high-school-age students are in schools of an enrolment of one hundred or less.
7. There is also great need for an investigation into vocational opportunities and needs of youth—the types of jobs they enter, the conditions of work and progress on these jobs, and the most effective and efficient methods of training needed in preparation. In this connection we need to give consideration to the possibilities of a much greater differentiation of our entire educational program to meet the varying needs and abilities of American youth.
8. Doubtless the greatest need in American life is to put into action the best that is now known concerning the solution of the problems of youth. We should examine the numerous experiments now under way and recommend their tested results to the American people. We should likewise set up new experiments of our own wherever they seem desirable and wise.

Director Rainey will supervise a staff of well-trained and capable persons who will compose a more or less permanent organization in Washington, including workers in psychology, sociology, secondary education, vocational education, recreation, character education, and statistics. He suggested to the commission the desirability of conducting a series of open hearings in various sections of the country for the purpose of collecting information, opinions, and attitudes toward the problems of youth. The commission has emphasized that it will work with existing agencies in the formulation of all plans for the care and education of youth. The good sense of following such a policy is apparent when one bears in mind the number and diversity of agencies at work, not only in administering the affairs of youth, but in investigating their needs.

AN EXPERIMENT IN EDUCATIONAL BROADCASTING

The following report of a plan being worked out in Chicago to broadcast educational programs was made by a staff correspondent to the *Christian Science Monitor*.

The long contest between commercial radiocasting stations and educators for the "rights of the air" has taken a happy turn here. The two interests have joined in a large-scale experiment to put out the best education programs that their combined efforts can produce.

The experiment is to last four years, and is to be supported by a \$75,000 a year budget contributed jointly by the three universities interested, by some half-dozen local radiocasting stations, and by the Rockefeller Foundation. Downtown headquarters have been set up here under the name of the University Broadcasting Council.

Northwestern University, the University of Chicago, and De Paul University are the participating educational institutions. The commercial broadcasters co-operating are NBC, Columbia, and Mutual, with six local outlets.

The novelty of the experiment lies in the fact that the universities are frankly using the radio technique which has proved so successful in selling toothpaste and fancy desserts and in building up big audiences for news commentators. While the one object of the programs is education, the medium is not that of the classroom lecture, but of the theater—or more properly, the broadcasting studio. As much as possible, information is dramatized.

At the same time, the responsibility of the universities for the dissemination of accurate knowledge is recognized.

The material offered, therefore, will be supplied by the experts of the university faculties, but experienced radio-script writers will be called in to put it into suitable form, and trained actors will be engaged to present it. Too many educational programs in the past have been prepared by educators who know little of the technique of the radio, it is felt. No number of dazzling degrees should place a professor on a program if he lacks the ability to make his subject appealing to large numbers of people, say the directors of the new council. At the same time, they welcome as stars faculty members who have that elusive talent they call "radio personality."

The programs planned for the opening season of the new council fall roughly into three types. First there are those just mentioned, in which professors who have the ability to win radio audiences talk informally and directly to them, preferably in dialogue with each other or with a questioner.

Then there are others in which a professional cast presents in dramatic form informational material which the public is likely to want. A series called "The Old Judge" is a sample. Everybody would like to know something about everyday legal problems, but the technical language of the law professor is likely to make the subject seem too difficult. So the material has been dramatized.

Clients call upon the Old Judge, a friendly counselor, and put their problems before him. He gives them legal advice in common, everyday language. And lest this grow too solemn, his old negro retainer steps in now and then to offer comic relief.

Another type of program follows the technique of the news commentator. But instead of giving a one-man view of the news, it draws on the expert knowledge of the three university faculties. Take the question of oil rights in Abyssinia. A university geologist who would never dream of rushing to the press with his information may have a bit of knowledge about the natural resources of that country that throws light on the whole political situation. This news commentator digs this up and brings it to light. And he presents it not in classroom language but in the conversational manner.

There are other novel programs planned. "The Voice of Science" proposes to present current happenings in all fields of natural science in news reporter's style.

"The Living Hall of Fame" will give citations for contemporary achievement, citing little-known men who have made outstanding contributions to their times.

A program called "The Living Case Book" plans to take the microphone into the juvenile court, pick up actual testimony, then call upon an expert in juvenile delinquency to discuss the problems involved.

Another on "Crime Detection and Prevention" is patterned to utilize the records and information of Northwestern University's crime-detection laboratory.

The programs are to begin the latter part of October. Local stations co-operating are WGN, WENR, WLS, WMAQ, WBBM, and WJJD.

OPPOSITION TO PUPIL TRAFFIC PATROLS

For some time there has been increasing disapproval of pupil traffic patrols to protect children in their daily trips to and from school. The chief objection concerns the hazard to the boys serving as patrols. Criticism was brought to a head at a recent meeting of the executive committee of the National Congress of Parents and Teachers in session in Chicago. The committee voted a demand that the practice of "substituting school safety patrols for policemen" be abandoned throughout the country.

"VITALIZED SCHOOL JOURNALISM" BECOMES THE "STUDENT LEADER"

Last year the *Journal of the National Education Association* sponsored the organization of the National Association of Student Edi-

tors and the monthly publication, *Vitalized School Journalism*. The purposes of the project have been to encourage pupil participation and to improve school journalism. Among the activities in which participation was stimulated are American Education Week, vitalized commencements, school interpretation, and celebration of the tercentenary of American secondary education. The whole project was received with such enthusiasm that decision has been made to enlarge the scope of *Vitalized School Journalism* under the broader title, the *Student Leader*. Under the new caption the publication will serve as the official organ not only of the National Association of Student Editors but also of the National Council of Student Government Officers and the Student Graphic Arts Society. The first issue of the enlarged periodical was published in September. The periodical and the associated organizations can give the principals and others in authority in the schools tangible aid in placing school papers and pupil organizations on an educative basis and in fostering a deeper interest on the part of pupils in social, economic, and political affairs.

CHANGES IN THE JOURNALS OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

From the Scholastic Corporation of Pittsburgh, publishers of *Scholastic*, comes the announcement of publication of *Highschool*, a "Fortnightly for Teachers and Principals." The heading of Number 1 of Volume I carries the message, "Combined with the *High School Teacher*," which was discontinued with the appearance of *Highschool*. The new periodical will have as editor Maurice R. Robinson, who is editor also of *Scholastic*. In a circular letter he writes that experience with the celebration of the tercentenary of secondary education brought conviction that "there is an imperative need to continue to inform teachers and principals, as well as the public, of the doings and achievements of American high schools." The new periodical is described as "the first national newspaper for teachers and principals."

The first issue is a five-column eight-page publication, the nature of the content of which may be judged from the following headlines: "Loyalty Oaths Demanded by 7 More States," "Youth Gets 20¢ a Day from N.Y.A.," "N.E.A. Votes Academic Freedom," "Split

Threatens Teachers Union," "Teaching Helps for *Scholastic*," "Heard at Denver," and "Prescribes Cure for Illiteracy." Like a newspaper, the publication is informative but, in line with its specialty, it informs concerning education with some emphasis on news in secondary education.

The style is partially characterized by breezy informality with a touch of slang—more so than is *Scholastic*. Illustrative of this propensity are certain headlines: "Highschool Housewives Huddle," "Pennsy Cuts Restored," "1000 Books Listed for Sr. Hi Libraries," "N.E.A. editor okays compact orthography of ye olde publick highe schoole," and "Mo. Lads Prefer Print to Garbo." In this matter of expression one wonders whether teachers will wish for themselves what they are disposed not to tolerate in their pupils.

Highschool is published at 801 Chamber of Commerce Building, Pittsburgh. Subscriptions are two dollars for two years.

Another change in journals in the field of secondary education is the succession to the editorship of the *Junior-Senior High School Clearing House* of John Carr Duff. In his professional capacity the new editor is principal of the Edgemont School of Scarsdale, New York, and a member of the extension faculty of New York University.

AN ENGLISH VIEW OF AMERICAN EDUCATION IN THE DEPRESSION

Readers of educational periodicals have had no lack of descriptions of school conditions and problems during the depression. There is little need just now of adding to the information that has previously been made available, especially as most schools and systems are gradually working themselves out of the havoc of the depression. It is, nevertheless, interesting to note how others have viewed our predicament and our efforts and spirit in the struggle to maintain the educational program. The opportunity of seeing ourselves as others see us is afforded in a recent article in the London *Times Educational Supplement*, entitled "American Education in the Melting Pot." Following are the opening paragraphs of the article.

What happened to the schools of the United States during the financial and industrial crisis? Recent experience in England enables us to hazard a few guesses. For example, we should expect to hear of reductions in salaries and in staffs, of

increases in the size of classes in public schools, and of higher fees in private institutions. I doubt very much, however, whether we should have expected to hear that almost two thousand public schools had been closed entirely, that eighteen thousand schools had been open for less than six months of the year, and that teachers had been working for months without salary. We should have been still more surprised, I think, to learn that a few communities had departed from the time-honored tradition of free education in the public schools, and when finally we learned that the very American public whose zeal for education has become a byword was now turning round and attacking its cherished educational system at so many points that educators were becoming seriously concerned for their future, we should probably have paused in bewilderment. Yet these are some of the changes that have taken place.

The first fact that forces itself on our notice is that during the four years from 1930 to 1934 there was a marked increase in the enrolment of pupils in the public schools, and when the figures are analyzed, we find that, practically all this increase was in the numbers attending the public high schools. In these schools attendance was higher by two million in 1934 than in 1930. Attendance at vocational schools and classes also increased, and the enrolment at many colleges and universities showed an upward tendency. Even in a country in which for many years there has been a trend towards lengthening the period of school life, such increases are remarkable, and although the causes are not difficult to determine, they are worth noting. Allowing for a small annual increase (of about two hundred thousand pupils), which would in any event almost certainly have taken place, the higher enrolment is due in part to the absence of openings for the employment of those who would normally have left school, and in part to the official sponsoring by President Roosevelt's organization for unemployment relief of a "Back to School Movement," with the usual publicity of press and radio.

The main body of the article presents what seems to be an accurate record of conditions and changes in the schools. To quote this portion of the article would be repeating much that has been previously reported in the *School Review* and elsewhere. It will suffice to indicate that these paragraphs deal with the schools' increasing burden, savings on salaries of teachers and other financial adjustments, and problems faced by the high schools. The concluding section, worth quoting in full, undertakes to generalize the benefits to America's understanding of its educational problems of the experiences through which we have been struggling.

Let us turn now to the spirit in which the crisis was met. At first the urgency and the magnitude of the problems with which the schools were faced rendered impossible anything but emergency measures. Financial aid was sought from

every available source, teachers opened or prolonged school with no immediate prospect of payment, essential repairs to school buildings were undertaken under one or other of the President's schemes for the relief of unemployment, teachers with no regular appointments were placed on the pay-rolls of federal relief agencies and attached to schools for temporary service, while, with the assistance of public funds, students at state universities were given employment to enable them to complete their courses of study. These and similar measures brought temporary relief, but the crisis called for, and is meeting with, a more considered response.

In spite of much evidence to the contrary, I believe the American people's belief in education will emerge as strong, if not stronger, than before. "This crisis," said Mr. Roosevelt in one of his speeches, "can be met, but not in a day or a year, and education is a vital factor." Existing conceptions as to the purpose and scope of education will be subjected to critical examination. Public schools of various types will have to rejustify their place in the social structure, and the problem of educating for life will, it is to be hoped, receive as much attention as that of educating for livelihood. One may even hope that the American educational phraseology will be simplified.

It has been realized, as never before, how ineffectual are the guaranties for the continuance and financial stability of the school systems in most districts, no matter how genuinely interested in their schools the inhabitants may be. It is not possible here to enter into a detailed explanation of the various methods of financing education at present employed, but a fairly accurate impression of their character in many states will be formed if we think of them as *ad hoc* finance. A school is required in a rural district and bonds are issued on the security of the local taxes, additional revenue is needed for developing the school system, and an additional percentage of the taxes on real and personal property in the area is assigned to the department of education. At other times and for other purposes a portion of the revenue from an inheritance tax or from the state income tax (where such exists) may be used for education, or, as new and taxable sources of revenue appear, they in turn may be drawn upon for the same purpose—giving rise, for example, to grants for education from taxes on sales or on chain stores. Everywhere, however, the basis of school finance is still the property tax, and for this and other reasons the whole system is proving unsatisfactory. The area which is the unit of taxation may be small and thinly populated, tax systems may overlap, the multiplication of tax officials, many of whom are local and without training or expert knowledge, makes for anomalies such as inequitable assessment and irregular collection, while in difficult times tax delinquencies abound and the value of personal property diminishes. It is for such reasons as these that those who are concerned to provide for the continuity and stability of the school system are steadily rallying public support in favor of administrative and financial reforms, including, for example, the practice of long-term planning and financing, the adoption of a larger school

district, such as the county, and the making of education a primary charge on the total revenue of the area.

The democratic conception of education as providing equal opportunity for all, which remains the ideal of the great mass of the American people, is seen not only to need reinterpretation, but indeed to be incapable of achievement unless the community as a whole steps in and helps to lessen the glaring differences caused by the unequal resources of different parts of the country. The movement for educational reform, therefore, calls upon each of the separate states to supplement and direct the activities of the small local unit and even more strongly insists that the federal government shall, in its turn, help the constituent states of the Union according to their several needs. It has already done so in the great emergency, the argument runs, why should it not continue to do so, and make equality of educational opportunity not merely an ideal but a reality?

WHO'S WHO IN THIS ISSUE

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THE THIRD CONFERENCE OF THE INTERNATIONAL INQUIRY ON SCHOOL AND UNIVERSITY EXAMINATIONS

CHARLES H. JUDD
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The Carnegie Corporation of New York, the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, and the International Institute of Teachers College, Columbia University, convened at Folkestone, England, on June 7-10, 1935, an international conference on examinations. This conference was the third of the kind assembled under the same auspices. The first was held in Eastbourne, England, in 1931 and was attended by twenty-seven educators representing England, Scotland, France, Germany, Switzerland, and the United States. The second conference of the series, held in London in 1933, brought together some of the members of the national committees which were preparing reports for the third conference. The third conference included representatives from England, Scotland, France, Germany, Sweden, Norway, Finland, and the United States. The membership of the three conferences was determined by invitation of the sponsoring bodies, not by the governments of the countries represented. The conferences may be thought of, therefore, as scientific gatherings rather than as official assemblies. It is true, however, that the members of the national delegations in attendance at each conference were experienced educators and could speak with complete knowledge of the educational systems which they represented. In a number of cases they were members of the educational governing bodies of the countries from which they came.

In order to supply a background for understanding the third conference, it is necessary to recount briefly some facts with regard to the earlier conferences. The first, or Eastbourne Conference, was devoted mainly to a statement of the problems which confronted the various national educational systems represented. There was very little treatment of the techniques of examination except in the re-

ports made by American representatives on the measuring devices employed in the United States. The Conference gave a great deal of attention to social selection and to the problem of choosing and preparing those who are to be leaders in public life. The English representatives pointed out the limitations of the traditional English examinations and agreed to undertake a series of studies of the reliability of these examinations. The French representatives expressed confidence in the established French system of selection of students for the upper schools but indicated that they were willing to study the situation. The German representatives were disturbed because of the large numbers of students who were seeking the opportunities of secondary and higher education. They were also seriously concerned lest the standards of scholarship should suffer unless means of selection could be devised which would be quite as rigorous and effective as the individual examinations that have long been characteristic of German educational institutions. The Scottish and the Swiss educators gave evidence that they were actively engaged in formulating objective tests and in making comparisons of school results as revealed through the use of these tests.

The second, or interim, conference was in a sense preparatory to the third, the Folkestone Conference. Each national group had agreed at Eastbourne to pursue certain inquiries. The Carnegie Corporation provided subventions for these inquiries. Committees were organized and set at work on the study of the examination problems of their respective countries. The London Conference was held for the purpose of comparing results obtained up to 1933 and giving such stimulation to further work on the part of the various national committees as would naturally be produced by an exchange of experiences among those who were engaged in active work.

The four years which elapsed between the Eastbourne Conference and the Folkestone Conference witnessed marked changes in a number of respects. Six members of the Eastbourne Conference died in the interval, among them Henry Suzzallo, president of the Carnegie Foundation, who was one of the enthusiastic supporters of the international inquiry. Other changes in personnel also distinguished the third conference from the first. There were present at Folkestone representatives of three Scandinavian countries—Norway, Sweden,

and Finland. Each of the national delegations except the German included new members. The German delegation at Folkestone was reduced to a single member. The American delegation had as a new member Walter A. Jessup, president of the Carnegie Foundation. Professor I. L. Kandel attended both the interim conference of 1933 and the Folkestone Conference but was not present at the Eastbourne Conference.

Even more important than the changes in personnel were the changes in national educational outlooks which had taken place in the years between 1931 and 1935. Some of these changes were due to political upheavals, such as that which has recently altered the character of higher education in Germany. Some were due to the fact that educational leaders in the European countries represented have been engaged since the Eastbourne Conference in scientific studies of education with a vigor never exhibited in earlier times. It would be too much to claim for the Eastbourne Conference that it was the occasion or cause of the movement in European countries to study education by exact scientific methods. Indeed, there are repeated statements in the documents submitted to the Folkestone Conference calling attention to scientific studies of education which were made in European countries before 1931. One English writer in particular makes the sweeping claim for Sir Francis Galton, an English student of human nature, that he was the originator of the measurement movement which has flourished in American psychology and American education. While the Eastbourne Conference was not the beginning of scientific studies of education in Europe, it certainly can be credited with having greatly stimulated Europeans to make inquiries of a type which has long been more familiar in America than in the older civilizations, where schools have been under the direct supervision of highly centralized governmental authorities.

Each national delegation made a report at the Folkestone Conference. The representatives from the Scandinavian countries had no results of inquiries to report. They devoted themselves, therefore, to accounts of the school systems which they represented and to outlines of studies which they thought it would be profitable for them to undertake in the immediate future.

It was very interesting to an American to note that some of the

educational problems which have frequently agitated this country are present in Northern Europe. There was clear evidence in the statements made by the representatives of the Scandinavian countries that democratic demands for opportunities of higher education for the common people have been increasingly insistent in recent years. These democratic demands are encountering on the other side of the Atlantic, as they are even in this country, resistance from the conservative institutions which have been traditional strongholds of special privilege. The examinations for admission to the universities were frankly criticized as impeding the development of popular education.

The French committee reported an exhaustive study of the examination which is given at the end of the *lycée*, the *baccalauréat*. This examination includes a number of elements, among them a philosophical dissertation and an oral presentation by the candidate before a committee of examiners. The committee in charge of a *baccalauréat* examination reaches its decision and passes or fails the candidate after consultation among its members. When there are differences of judgment on the part of members of the examining committee, they are often obscured or entirely overcome by the prestige of the chairman or by the influence of single members of the committee. French educators in general have complete confidence in the verdicts of examining committees. Indeed, as pointed out earlier, the French representatives at the Eastbourne Conference exhibited such confidence in the French system of examinations that they seemed to be unmoved by the findings of investigations made outside of France in which the unreliability of ordinary examinations had been clearly demonstrated. The French committee reported at Folkestone studies which penetrated beneath the seeming unanimity of opinion of the examiners who act as judges in the conventional examinations and revealed the necessity of a radical change in attitude from that exhibited by the French representatives at Eastbourne.

One of the members of the French delegation presented a most ingenious device for giving educational and vocational guidance. The study reported bears some resemblance to the studies which in the United States are described as studies in trait analysis. The traits

and abilities which are essential to success in certain professions and occupations had been determined and were reported as the basis for the guidance of individuals. When an individual shows deficiencies in traits or abilities essential to a particular calling, he can be advised that he should not undertake to prepare himself for that calling. For example, deafness, either complete or partial, excludes one from certain professions; lack of quick muscular reaction debars one from certain occupations.

The English delegation presented a number of significant printed documents. Among them was a volume of essays on examinations which is incidentally a most illuminating history of the English educational system. This volume will undoubtedly be used by students of education in all countries as a clear exposition of the major trends in English education.

A brief contribution by Professor C. E. Spearman to this volume of essays may be especially mentioned because it calls attention to the danger that absorption in the techniques of examinations and in the results of studies of examinations may lead investigators to concentrate too much on the problem of making examinations reliable. Validity is quite as important in examinations as reliability. The warning issued by Professor Spearman is fully justified. It was recognized in some of the comments made at the Folkestone Conference that the most promising field for future inquiry is the investigation of the validity of examinations.

A second important document presented was a bibliography of all the English studies which have dealt with examinations.

The main contribution of the English committee was a report of an exhaustive study of the reliability of examinations. England, like France, has believed it possible to select candidates for higher education and for civil preferment by means of examinations. Examinations of an accepted and established type have been administered with complete confidence in their reliability by English educators in all parts of the British Empire. Examining authorities of undisputed prestige control the progress of English students at every stage in their careers. The English committee employed the regular examiners in the regular way to pass on real "scripts" written by real candidates. The results of the comparisons between the marks of

different examiners are devastating. To be sure, it had been pointed out at the Eastbourne Conference that the reliability of ordinary examinations had repeatedly been proved to be very low. It was recognized at that conference, however, that the examiners in England would probably never accept as conclusive the findings arrived at anywhere in the world outside of England. The English committee therefore made an attempt to supply acceptable evidence through an elaborate series of inquiries scrutinizing the English examinations from every point of view.

The French and the English reports confirm the conclusions reached some years ago in this country with regard to the unreliability of ordinary examinations. Here the demonstration that conventional examinations are unreliable led to the widespread formulation and use of new-type examinations. The French and the English committees stated it as their purpose to carry their investigations forward not along the line of the American experiment of substituting new-type examinations for essay-type examinations but along lines which will result in the improvement of the essay type of examination. In other words, both the French committee and the English committee came to the conclusion that the defects in the present examination systems are due to inadequacies in the form and administration of essay examinations as they are now conducted. They regard the power of clear, cogent expression of ideas which is demanded in various forms of essay-writing and in oral presentation as so important in the life of all educated individuals that they are unwilling to give up the essay type of examination.

The German delegation, as was noted in an earlier paragraph, was reduced to a single representative. This representative was obliged to withdraw from further participation in the international study of examinations. He was able, however, to present the results of two studies, one made in Berlin and one in Saxony.

The study made in Berlin demonstrated, as did the studies made in France and England, that the conventional examination is not reliable and also that the judgments of teachers are not safe guides in the selection of pupils for higher schools. There is frequent reiteration in the report of the Berlin study of the fact that teachers are not able to render competent judgments because of deficient training.

Above all, it was found that teachers' judgments are frequently influenced by the personal traits of pupils to the extent of being biased. It was found that teachers in the lower schools often lay emphasis on personal traits which do not contribute to the standing of pupils when they reach the secondary school. The conclusion arrived at through this study was that adequate tests should be devised and substituted for the ordinary bases of promotion.

The study made in Saxony was undertaken with a view to solving in a scientific way the problems which were created by the limitation of attendance on universities to a definitely determined quota set by the government. The present rulers of Germany are convinced that the professions for which higher education prepares are overcrowded. This overcrowding of the professions is regarded as an inevitable consequence of the large numbers of students who entered the universities after the World War. The report of the Saxony inquiry opens with the statement that "in 1900 there were granted in Germany about eight thousand certificates of admission to universities, while in 1933 the number had risen to approximately forty-three thousand." As a corrective for the unfavorable situation created by the overcrowding of the universities, the government set a quota for all universities of fifteen thousand admissions per year. Furthermore, this quota was distributed among the various states of the German Empire in such a way that Saxony was allowed only 1,339 entrants in a given year.

Preliminary study of the situation made it clear that the distribution of this limited quota among the secondary schools of Saxony was a complicated task. If each school was allowed to send students to the universities on the basis of its pupil population, there was no guaranty that the most competent candidates for admission to the universities would be chosen. Indeed, studies of the pupils completing the curriculums of different secondary schools proved beyond all question that the standards of the different institutions were widely at variance. It became necessary, therefore, to devise some method of selecting the most competent candidates for admission while limiting the total number of entrants in any given year to the quota.

It was decided that the choice of individuals could not be undertaken by any central authority. The knowledge which teachers in the

various secondary schools have of the qualifications of individual candidates must be depended on to determine the particular individuals from each school who are to be given places in the limited quota.

The function of the central authority is to allot to the various schools their shares of the quota. The central authority is obligated, it was held, to give to a school that has very high standards a share in the quota which exceeds that calculated on the basis of its pupil population. A school of low standards should be allotted fewer places than it would receive on the basis of its pupil population. The central authority was confronted, therefore, with the duty of rating the secondary schools. In fulfilling this duty, the central authority was not concerned merely with testing the factual knowledge which the schools drilled into the minds of their pupils. The central authority was concerned to discover how far each school had succeeded in training its pupils to think clearly and comprehensively. The examination, or test, by means of which a school was to be rated as superior or inferior could not be a test in subject matter. It must be a test of the power of independent thinking and expression.

The report of the Saxony inquiry presents in detail an examination devised as a basis of rating the secondary schools of the state. It is interesting for American educators to note that the Saxony examination differs from the so-called "new-type" examinations. Three examples of the large number of items included in the Saxony examination are as follows:

- I. Define the following terms: skill, science, personality.
- II. Find and point out the fallacy in the following argument: All bodies of the same weight fall at the same rate. Iron and paper fall at the same rate. Therefore, iron and paper are of the same weight.
- III. I blow on a glowing ember and it breaks into a flame. I blow on a burning candle and it is extinguished. How does it happen that the same performance on my part produces two such different results?

The foregoing questions are typical of those which constitute the examination. The answers given by the pupils were marked on a scale of 5, 1 being the lowest mark and 5 the highest. The average for a given school was calculated, and the school was assigned its rank among the schools tested. By way of illustration of the kinds of

answers made by pupils and the marking of these answers, definitions of the word "science" may be quoted. Translations of two of the answers which received the lowest mark are as follows:

Science is the name applied to various divisions of education.

Science is that area of activity which depends on the mind; it is the assemblage of materials in the brains of men.

Translations of two answers receiving the highest mark are as follows:

Science includes all that which has been accumulated through the human impulse to explore nature and to bring the findings of exploration into a definite system. Nature as here used covers all the facts of human life and all the forces in the physical world.

Science is the name given to the purposeful effort which is devoted to the assembling and arranging of all that is known and investigated in various fields of inquiry. The function of science is to seek out laws and with the aid of these laws and with the aid of studies of new phenomena to make discoveries in realms not now mastered by the mind. The limits of science are the limits set by human knowledge.

It is clear that the authors of the Saxony examination attempted to retain the advantages of the essay. They did not reduce the scoring of answers to the automatic process which is characteristic of new-type examinations. Their chief aim was to avoid the testing of mere memory. The questions included in the Saxony examination are general and reveal the extent to which the pupil has cultivated power to formulate ideas rather than merely to repeat facts.

The Scottish delegation indicated at Eastbourne in 1931 that Scottish educators had gone a long way in the direction of criticizing conventional methods of examination and of adopting new-type examinations. In the interval since 1931 a number of printed reports have been issued extending the work which was reported at Eastbourne and dealing with various problems.

Some of this published material treats of administrative practices peculiar to Scotland. For example, it was found that some school systems in Scotland devote as much as 15 per cent of their teaching time to examinations.

Another published report compares the standings of students in universities with the standings which the same students received as

pupils in secondary schools before entering the universities. The results of the inquiry are much the same as those secured in this country where similar comparisons have been made. One outcome of the Scottish inquiry which is of special interest is that the correspondence between teachers' judgments and university standings is higher for honors students and for those who dropped out of the universities than for students of the middle ranks.

The Scottish committee proposes to continue its work by making an intensive study of a group of one thousand pupils. It will also attempt to determine, if possible, the point at which pupils make, or should make, the transition from elementary courses to secondary courses.

As a member of the American delegation, Professor Kandel read a paper tracing the history of examinations in the United States. This paper laid chief emphasis on the development of new-type examinations. Professor E. L. Thorndike emphasized the importance of improving methods of marking papers for the purpose of securing economy of educational effort and of securing a high degree of reliability in examinations. President Jessup gave a brief account of the study of the schools of Pennsylvania sponsored by the Carnegie Foundation and of the state-wide testing programs carried on by a number of state universities. The writer of this article pointed out the constructive efforts made in this country to diagnose through the use of examinations different kinds of teaching and of learning. He also pointed out the importance of comprehensive examinations in stimulating students to synthesize in their thinking what they have learned in a number of courses. The postponement of examination to a time remote from the date of completion of a course, which is an essential feature of comprehensive examinations as now administered in many institutions, was described as tending to concentrate the students' efforts on broad interpretations rather than on mere repetition of particular items covered in single courses.

Two members of the American delegation contributed to the organization and conduct of the Conference more than to the discussions. These were F. P. Keppel, president of the Carnegie Corporation, and President Paul Monroe. President Keppel expressed his satisfaction and that of the Carnegie Corporation with the progress

that had been made by the national committees. President Monroe was largely responsible for the program and for the selection of the personnel of the Conference. He presided at the sessions. His contributions to the success of the Conference were subjects of frequent and enthusiastic comment throughout the Conference.

It is difficult to evaluate in any single statement the influence of conferences of the type here under discussion. It was clear at the Eastbourne Conference that much is to be gained by exchange of experiences between representative educators from different countries and by the acquaintances formed between these educators. It was even clearer at Folkestone that all participants in an international conference gain much from association with representatives of other countries. To an American the most gratifying feature of the Folkestone Conference was the enthusiasm exhibited by the Europeans for exact scientific studies of education. The peculiar circumstances which have made the United States the home of the most vigorous cultivation of the science of education are too well known to require elaboration. It has become evident and was strikingly shown at Folkestone that Europeans have much to contribute both to methods of scientific study of education and to insights in this field now that they have been stimulated by the social movements which affect their educational systems to undertake a re-examination of their educational problems. As important as the results of particular inquiries must be recognized to be, the arousal of a world-wide scientific attitude toward educational problems is undoubtedly the most significant outcome that can be sought in international conferences on education. There can be no doubt, in the light of what has been accomplished by the conferences held under the auspices mentioned in the first paragraph of this article, that substantial progress has been made in the direction of cultivating such a scientific attitude.

GENERAL LANGUAGE IN THE HIGH SCHOOL

ELLA B. ADAMS

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With the school year 1934-35 Northwestern High School in Detroit, Michigan, finished the second year of general language. We feel that this subject has now passed the experimental stage and is well established as a two-year subject for the general curriculum.

The need for such a course has grown out of changing social and economic conditions in the city. The character of the school population has become very different from what it was twenty years ago, or even ten years ago. Formerly the pupils for whom general language is designed would have left school after completing Grade VI or VII. Only the children of well-to-do families or of ambitious parents went to high school. This selection meant that the pupils of those days had more ability and a better background on which to build an education than have the high-school pupils of today. Now children enter high school with all kinds of preparation or lack of it, with a wide range of intelligence quotients, and with every degree of culture. At the present time the college-preparatory group in Northwestern High School includes only one-third of the pupils, although the percentage of college entrants is as high as that of any school in the city. The remaining two-thirds of the pupils in Northwestern High School are divided equally between commercial and general courses. With such a large number to take the general curriculum, changes must be made to enrich the program for these new pupils. From the standpoint of worth-while content, variety, and interest, general language has a fine contribution to make to these boys and girls.

It is our policy to exclude from the general-language classes all who are capable of studying foreign language in a regular class. (In the course of the two years three pupils have been assigned to general language who were misplaced, and they were transferred to the foreign language of their choice at the end of the first semester.) This

policy leaves in the general-language classes only pupils who have an ability range from lower Y to the bottom of the Z's in our X-Y-Z grouping. A large percentage of the pupils are colored. General language is in no sense a substitute for any other language course; it is rather an innovation. Moreover, at the end of the second semester with each class, I have considered it advisable to recommend for work in Latin, French, German, or Spanish from three to six pupils who could not possibly have succeeded before they had received a background in grammar in general language. Several of these pupils have elected to continue the second year of general language along with the foreign language selected. All these pupils are doing creditable work, even good work, in the foreign-language class.

The aim of general language in high school is to improve the pupil's understanding of English and to help him in its use, both oral and written, and to give him a cultural background for the greater appreciation of life and literature. The course, then, is an end in itself and is not meant to be mainly diagnostic, as it is in the intermediate schools.

Most of the pupils in the course are poor readers, spell badly, and have limited vocabularies. Few of them care to read. They are a hopeless-looking lot, indifferent, restless, and little interested in preparing assignments or in learning. The chief problem during the first weeks is the stimulating of interest. When the pupils have been aroused, have been brought to forget themselves and to feel at home in the class, they begin to want to express some of their experiences. Soon they show a willingness to read—in easy books—and to report on interesting topics. From then on they move ahead. If nothing more than this stimulation is gained during the first two weeks, the time has been economically spent.

During the first semester the class studies the purpose of language and the development of language, using Lindquist's textbook.¹ At the end of the first six weeks I ask whether any pupils are having difficulties in their English classes. Many are completely lost and discouraged, and all have some problems in grammar. The questions are carefully listed. I then show them by a simple illustration how

¹ Lilly Lindquist, *Laboratory Course in General Language*, Books I and II. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1929.

necessary a knowledge of grammar is to their study of Latin during the coming semester. This prospect, with the hope of raising their marks in English, is all the motivation that is needed for the struggle with parts of speech and their uses and with other items of grammar during the next three weeks. Much intensive drill is used.

The class then returns to the study of written language and its growth to the alphabet stage. This study gives an opportunity to learn some of the customs of various countries around the Mediterranean and their contributions to world-civilization. Attention is given to Egypt, Babylonia, Phoenicia, Crete, Greece, and Rome. From Rome the class moves to Britain and learns of the various invasions of the island and their effects on the English language.

The pupils then have a fair background on which to base the study of Latin in the second semester. Lindquist's second book is used, with supplementary material that is not in the textbook. One of the strengths of this course is its flexibility, but this characteristic might also be a weakness, as Miss Lindquist insists. During the first part of the semester the first two Latin declensions are learned and an acquaintance made with the third. The pupils master the uses of the cases, the agreement of adjectives, the indicative of first-conjugation verbs in active and passive voices, and the verb *sum*. Many sentences are translated from English into Latin as a means of learning the vocabulary. About the seventh week the class starts to read Reed's *Julia*¹ and finishes twenty-five or more pages of connected material. The stories appeal to the class, and the vocabulary is good. Considerable time is spent on derivation from words in the story—a most valuable part of the course. There is not enough time to spend on making scrapbooks, dressing dolls, etc., but visual aids of this kind are probably more necessary for pupils who are younger than these.

The third semester is spent equally between French and German. Miss Lindquist's first book is used for a while, and then another departure is made from it. Only enough grammar is learned to enable the pupils to read easy stories and anecdotes in each language. In French mimeographed copies of legends taken from Guerber's *Contes*

¹ Maud Reed, *Julia*: A Latin Reading Book. New York: Macmillan Co., 1924.

*et légendes*¹ are used. In the study of German Hagboldt's *Allerlei*² has been found very usable because of the large number of cognates and the simplicity of ideas. Again a great deal of time is devoted to derivation. The pupils enjoy learning songs and poems, and they memorize and reproduce these very well in concert and individually. Map study is used, and the pupils learn to locate the chief cities, rivers, and mountains of each country.

The final semester is the crown and glory of the whole course and its chief delight. The first two weeks are given to the study of about fifty Greek roots. Words are formed from the roots and used in sentences. Attention is then turned to mythology, Sabin's book³ being used as a textbook. Making mythology a part of the general-language course was the idea of Miss Cooper, the head of the language department of Northwestern High School. The plan has proved to be excellent. The class is as alive and as interesting as any in the school. It is surprising how well these children remember the stories. That they enjoy the myths is evident from the amount of extra reading that they do voluntarily and the number of references that they find in the world about them. Each day during the first part of the class hour they tell of pertinent things that they have seen or heard. It is difficult to keep up with the articles and books that they bring me to read. One girl, for example, found a copy of Lucian's *Dialogues* in the library and brought it to me. The class enjoyed some of these immensely, although I should probably never have thought of using them.

An interesting bulletin board is in charge of a committee, which arranges the new material contributed each week. The pupils have kept a list of the references to the myths that they have met in their reading and other contacts. These are listed in a card index with the exact quotations and their sources. About 150 such recordings have been made. This list is convenient for review purposes. I have read

¹ Hélène A. Guerber, *Contes et légendes*. Chicago: American Book Co., 1923.

² Peter Hagboldt, *Allerlei*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1933.

³ Frances E. Sabin, *Classical Myths That Live Today*. Newark, New Jersey: Silver, Burdett & Co., 1927.

aloud to the class that most delightful book *The Perilous Seat*.¹ It gives a splendid picture of life at Delphi, with a remarkable feeling for the subject and for children. That this part of the course is worth while goes without saying. The English department has been most enthusiastic in its approval.

It soon becomes clear from experience that the teacher has to develop a technique for dealing with learners of this type. Teaching these pupils is an entirely different proposition from instructing a Latin class, which, at its worst, is made up of pupils of average and above-average intelligence. Unless the general-language class is informal and friendly, the teacher will find it impossible to get a response that accomplishes anything worth while. At first there is considerable disorder, but the disorder gradually lessens as the interest in the work increases. Truancy and absence from other causes run high, very high, but a marked improvement is noticeable even during the first semester and continues during the second semester. Absence is no unusual problem after that. The assignments must be short and specific, and care must be taken to see that work is done in order and on time. Children of lower abilities are a great group of slackers until they find that such tactics will not work. Most of the learning is done in class, especially during the first semester. Since no textbook is used for a great part of the work, it is necessary to depend on reports from reference reading. Almost all members of the class are willing, even eager, to prepare such reports and to present them orally. At first, of course, only the braver souls venture to do so, but, as time goes on, more pupils volunteer than are needed. Every pupil in the class is made to feel that he is important and can assist the whole class. The pupils take notes as the reports are discussed. A visitor who attended several classes remarked especially about the capable handling of these readings and the eagerness to contribute in the class.

Frequent written tests are given throughout the two years. It is enlightening to note the change in attitude toward these tests. At first the percentage of failures is high, but, as soon as the pupils definitely realize that they receive failing marks until their results reach

¹ Caroline Dale Snedeker, *The Perilous Seat*. Garden City, New York: Doubleday, Doran & Co., Inc., 1929.

the given standard, their marks begin to rise. Nothing has interested me more than the improvement in spelling, even in the case of the poorest spellers. Before the test on a unit in the first semester, spelling drills and a test on the new words in that unit are given. Then each misspelled word in the unit test is discounted one point. Few points are lost on any paper. There is little bad spelling in Latin, French, or German, and it is almost unbelievable how few words are spelled incorrectly after the first semester in spite of the fact that no drill is given even on the difficult names in the myths. The percentage of pupils who fail the course is small, not more than 6 per cent during the second semester of 1934-35. The average number of pupils in the classes during 1934-35 was thirty-three.

Certain conclusions about method stand out. Much drill is necessary for these slow learners, and overlearning is essential. However, the pupils do not resent repetition if variety is introduced. They can learn a great deal, even very difficult subject matter, and they remember well; but they must not be hurried. Given sufficient time these pupils could master the subject matter of almost any course. A set amount of ground to cover could be a bugbear and bring disaster. It is better for them to learn fewer things and learn to the point of mastery. The teacher can use her judgment about what is most important for attaining the objectives set. I know of no course that offers better opportunities for stressing ideals of character and ethical conduct and for giving these children what they need perhaps as much as anything else—a taste of success. I try to emphasize the dignity of labor and the importance of doing simple jobs well, for I realize that these pupils will not be found later doing the complicated tasks of life. I find that more is accomplished through a class discussion on such subjects with myself as a contributing member.

It occurred to me that it would be interesting to secure some of the pupils' own ideas about the value of general language and about the teaching of the course as they have been subjected to it. I therefore asked them to answer honestly and in their own way two questions: "What do you think about general language?" "What do you consider a good or a poor teacher?" Since they had no opportunity to discuss the questions together before writing, I think the independence of their judgments can be relied on. Several points about teach-

ing mentioned in the papers, most of them expressed by several writers, are quoted below.

1. The teacher must make us feel that she has a real interest in us and understands us. If the teacher isn't interested, why should we be?
2. If the teacher is cheerful and pleasant, the classroom is attractive.
3. A business-like way of doing things, with a variation in procedure, keeps the class alive.
4. If the teacher is enthusiastic and exhibits her liking for the subject, the class is more interesting.
5. A teacher must be patient and especially must give a boy (or girl) time to think before he answers.
6. The teacher should like a joke and have enough sense of humor to overlook many little things.
7. Nagging is taboo.
8. The students don't want to be blamed for the sins of a few. The individuals should be talked to privately.
9. Sarcasm is one of the worst of crimes. [I agree.]
10. When the student finds points of correlation in other subjects and is allowed to report them, he feels an incentive to effort.
11. We like a preview of the course as a whole, for it gives us a feeling that the teacher has a well-defined plan.
12. Each new assignment should be explained carefully, where necessary.

Frequent reviews and tests, references to books other than the textbook, freedom to express themselves, fairness in marking, and impartiality were all mentioned as desirable.

One of the papers is quoted just as it was written. The pupil who wrote this paper made a mark of B on the course.

When I first started General Language four terms ago, I was told by some that it was but a pleasant pastime and would never be of any real value to me. After four terms of the General Language courses I had a broader outlook on life in many different ways.

In General Language (one) I studied habits of the prehistoric man; the origin of writing including the cuneiform writing of the Babylonians and hieroglyphics of the Egyptians; how our alphabet came down to us; and the different invasions into England (Great Britain) from which the English of today descended. All of these facts helped me in history, English, and civics.

Then General Language (two) and (three). In these two courses I was given an assorted but clear introduction into different languages and the country which speaks it. The different songs we were taught to sing and facts learned make me have a more kindly and closer feeling of friendship for foreign countries. These courses help I think in deciding what courses in languages to pursue.

Then General Language (four) is what I think the most delightful and uplifting course of all, "Classic Myths." Everyone likes fairy tales and to study fascinating stories which one can find on buildings, in paintings, advertisements, and most any place is something really delightful as well as educational. This course helped me in English and Biology.

All in all, of all courses I have taken in high school, the one I will remember longest and get the most enjoyment from is General Language and I only wish the course was extended through (five and six) too.

Then too I have noticed that the members of the class work together better and with more enjoyment than in most classes. I think the reason for this is that when an interesting lesson that is not too long is given to the class and then the next day it is discussed in class, everyone learns more and if someone has been absent he doesn't just miss the lesson and go on but hears the class discussion and is informed of all that went on while he was gone. Then to all are allowed to make up tests, raise their marks by bringing in interesting articles, and giving book reports. This gives everyone a fair chance.

It would not be proper to talk of the pupils, subject matter, and methods and conclude without mentioning the teachers. Who shall teach general language? Preferably the Latin teacher, but of course any teacher who is trained in languages and has a real liking for teaching and a deep sympathy with children can make a success of it. It is hard work; the instructor must be on his toes every minute; and his patience must be inexhaustible. On the other hand, the rewards for the effort are great. Since the pupils of lower intelligence are attending the high school in increasing numbers, suitable work must be provided for them, and the language department has as much to offer as any other department, if not more.

HIGH-SCHOOL GRADUATES APPRAISE EXTRA-CURRICULUM ACTIVITIES

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QUESTIONS ASKED AND METHOD OF SECURING ANSWERS

What do graduates think of the extra-curriculum program in high school? Why did they not participate more fully during their high-school years? After being out of school for several years, how would they evaluate the extra-curriculum program which was offered to them? What would the graduates like to have included in an extra-curriculum program if they could return to school? What do graduates believe should be added to the extra-curriculum program?

In an attempt to answer these questions, the writer sent a questionnaire to the graduates of the high school at Creston, Iowa, with the idea that the findings might benefit the school in building a more desirable program. The results are probably those which would be found in the average rural community and may be used in many schools.

Creston, a city of eighty-six hundred inhabitants, is located in an agricultural territory. A new high-school building was constructed in the city during 1926. In this study an effort was made to contact every pupil who had been graduated from 1927 to 1932, inclusive. The graduating classes for the years 1927-32 totaled 515. Forty-two graduates had died or their addresses were not available. Questionnaires were sent to 473 former pupils, and answers were received from 266, or 56.2 per cent. The pupils responding represent a cross-section of the graduates of the six-year period. Some of the 266 graduates are now in college; others are working; some are living with their parents; some are married; and many are seeking positions.

The period considered in this survey is worthy of mention. The years 1927 and 1928 were years of great prosperity. The depression descended in 1929 and was particularly noticeable in Iowa by 1930. Then in 1931-32 followed a leveling toward a new standard. Al-

though an agricultural locality, Creston was fortunate in being a division point on the Burlington Railroad. With the advent of the depression, however, fewer and fewer laborers were needed at the railroad shops, and finally practically all the repairing of railroad equipment was shifted to other places. Creston also had a tile factory and a glove factory which have closed and not reopened during this period. Because of its geographical location, many traveling salesmen reside in Creston.

THE FINDINGS

Activities offered.—The following extra-curriculum activities were offered in the high school during the six-year period considered in the survey.

ACADEMIC	ATHLETICS—MAJOR	JOURNALISM
Business and commerce	Baseball	Annual
Class offices	Basketball	School paper
French club	Football	
Homemaking	Tennis	MUSIC
Latin club	Track	Band
Librarian's club		Glee club
Manual-training club		Instrumental solo
National Honor Society	CLUBS	Instrumental duet and ensemble
Science club	C. Club	Operetta
Student council	Girl Reserves	Orchestra
	Glider club	Shows and concerts
	Hi-Y	Vocal solo
	Natural dancing club	Vocal duet and ensemble
	Pep Club	
ATHLETICS—MINOR		UNCLASSIFIED
Boxing		Aeroplane
Checkers		Camera
Golf	DRAMATICS	Handicraft
Hiking	All-school play	Novelty
Ping-pong	Debate	Poster and commercial art
Soccer	Declamation	Radio
Tumbling	Junior-Senior play	Travel
Volleyball	Stunt night	

Number of activities participated in.—The average number of one-year units of extra-curriculum participation during their school careers reported by the graduates was found to be surprisingly large.

All the yearly units of extra-curriculum activities engaged in by all the pupils in a class were added, and an average was secured for the class. For the first three classes, 1927-29, inclusive, the average numbers of activities engaged in by each pupil were about the same, 14.1, 14.8, and 14.9. The average of the 1930 class decreased to 13.9, but the averages increased for the last two classes to 16.3 and 19.4. The greatest change occurred in the average number of activities participated in by the girls. The averages were 14.3 for the 1930 class and 21.4 for the 1932 class.

Extent of participation.—The percentages of graduates who stated that they had been unable to participate in extra-curriculum activities as extensively as they had desired indicated definitely that both boys and girls were desirous of participating to a larger extent. A better extra-curriculum program is needed to meet the desires expressed by graduates who have been out of school long enough to realize their deficiencies and who now have shorter working hours and more leisure than formerly. In every class, 1927 and 1931 excepted, the percentage of girls (46.6) who had wanted to take part in a greater number of activities than they had been able to engage in was greater than the corresponding percentage of boys (39.6). Half of the graduating class of 1929 had been desirous of participating in more extra-curriculum activities than they had engaged in. The percentages of dissatisfied members, both sexes combined, over the six-year period vary from 33.3 to 50.0. This finding plainly indicates that the extra-curriculum program has been inadequate. Administrators should attempt to make the program more extensive and flexible, so that the needs and desires of the pupils, especially those of the girls, may be adequately met.

The reasons given by the graduates for their inability to participate in extra-curriculum activities as extensively as they had desired are given in Table I. The lack of time ranked first, this reason being mentioned by 19.2 per cent of the pupils over the six-year period. Graduates who had lacked time for extra-curriculum activities included those who had worked after school and those who had had to spend an undue amount of time on their studies. Because Creston has no bus or streetcar service, pupils not possessing automobiles or bicycles have to walk to school. If the extra-curriculum activities are

worth while, perhaps more time should be provided for them during the school day. This arrangement would help to eliminate the difficulty of lack of time. Lack of initiative ranked second, an average of 6.0 per cent of the pupils giving this reason for not having taken part in a greater number of activities. This finding indicates that the activities were not properly presented, were poorly sponsored, or were not sufficiently varied. Ranking third was the lack of knowledge about the activities and enthusiasm for them. An outline of each activity given to the pupils at the beginning of the school year would enable them to decide which activities they wished to enter.

TABLE I

REASONS GIVEN BY 266 CRESTON HIGH SCHOOL GRADUATES FOR INABILITY
TO PARTICIPATE IN EXTRA-CURRICULUM ACTIVITIES AS
EXTENSIVELY AS THEY DESIRED

Reason	Average Percentage of Graduates Giving Reason	Reason	Average Percentage of Graduates Giving Reason
Lack of time.....	19.2	Distance from school.....	4.1
Lack of initiative.....	6.0	Lack of ability.....	3.8
Lack of knowledge and en- thusiasm.....	5.3	Conflict in schedule.....	3.4
Lack of money.....	4.9	Lack of interest.....	3.0
Poor health.....	4.1	Conduct in school.....	2.3
		Physical handicap.....	2.3

Comparative popularity of activities.—The percentages of graduates reporting one or more years of participation in various extra-curriculum activities, given in Table II, indicate the comparative popularity of the activities. Participation may be affected by the emphasis placed on an activity by the school, by the awards given, by the personal glory and satisfaction derived, and by the changing of sponsors. There was considerable shifting from 1927 to 1932 in the attractiveness of several activities. For example, 58.3 per cent of the boys in the class of 1927 participated in football, but only 23.8 per cent of the boys in the class of 1932 took part in that sport. Twenty-five per cent of the boys of the 1927 class belonged to Hi-Y, while in 1931, 78.4 per cent belonged.

Number of years spent in one activity.—After considering the popu-

larity of the activities, administrators often ask the question: How many years will a pupil remain in one activity? Several reasons will cause a pupil to change from one activity to another, some of the more important of which concern the sponsor, membership, worth-

TABLE II

TEN EXTRA-CURRICULUM ACTIVITIES MOST POPULAR AND FIVE LEAST POPULAR WITH 266 CRESTON HIGH SCHOOL GRADUATES AND PERCENTAGE WHO PARTICIPATED IN EACH ACTIVITY DURING ONE OR MORE YEARS

Activity	Average Percentage of Graduates Participating	Activity	Average Percentage of Graduates Participating
Most popular with boys:		Most popular with boys and girls— <i>continued</i> :	
Basketball.....	55.1	School paper.....	26.3
Hi-Y.....	53.4	Latin club.....	24.4
Glee club.....	46.4	Tennis.....	24.4
Stunt night.....	42.9	Annual.....	20.3
Football.....	40.2	National Honor Society...	19.9
Track.....	38.7	Least popular with boys:	
Manual-training club.....	37.6	Ping-pong.....	4.5
Operetta.....	37.3	Aeroplane.....	3.7
Junior-Senior play.....	36.6	Natural dancing.....	3.7
School paper.....	26.7	Glider club.....	2.7
Most popular with girls:		Novelty.....	2.7
Girl Reserves.....	61.1	Least popular with girls:	
Glee club.....	56.4	Travel.....	6.6
Basketball.....	52.1	Instrumental duet and ensemble.....	5.1
Stunt night.....	39.9	Ping-pong.....	3.8
Operetta.....	33.1	Checkers.....	2.6
Tennis.....	33.1	Golf.....	2.6
Latin club.....	31.6	Least popular with boys and girls:	
Baseball.....	30.3	Golf.....	4.1
Volleyball.....	30.0	Travel.....	4.1
Hiking.....	25.7	Checkers.....	3.4
Most popular with boys and girls:		Ping-pong.....	3.4
Basketball.....	53.8	Aeroplane.....	1.5
Glee club.....	48.1	Glider club.....	1.5
Stunt night.....	41.8		
Operetta.....	34.6		
Junior-Senior play.....	30.1		

whileness of the organization, honor or glory derived from participation, types of programs, motivation, and dissatisfaction of venture-some individuals. The average number of years that the graduates had participated in various extra-curriculum activities is shown in Table III. Parents in Creston emphasize music, and many pupils

take private instrumental and vocal lessons. The high school enters musicians in all divisions of the state music contest. These facts place special emphasis on music in the school.

Comparative values of the activities.—After having participated in the extra-curriculum activities and after entering adult life, do the graduates consider the program offered worth while? Each graduate

TABLE III

TEN ACTIVITIES IN WHICH 266 CRESTON HIGH SCHOOL GRADUATES
REPORTED LONGEST PERIOD OF PARTICIPATION AND AVERAGE
NUMBER OF YEARS OF PARTICIPATION IN EACH ACTIVITY

Activity	Average Number of Years of Participation	Activity	Average Number of Years of Participation
Participated in longest by boys:		Participated in longest by girls	
C. Club.....	3.0	—continued:	
Orchestra.....	3.0	Baseball.....	2.6
Shows and concerts.....	3.0	Basketball.....	2.6
Baseball.....	2.6	Orchestra.....	2.5
Volleyball.....	2.6	Tumbling.....	2.3
Band.....	2.5	Volleyball.....	2.3
Glee Club.....	2.5	Participated in longest by boys and girls:	
Instrumental solo.....	2.5	Glee club.....	3.0
Operetta.....	2.5	Instrumental solo.....	3.0
Science club.....	2.3	Shows and concerts.....	3.0
Participated in longest by girls:		C. Club.....	2.9
Glee club.....	3.0	Orchestra.....	2.9
Instrumental solo.....	3.0	Baseball.....	2.6
Operetta.....	3.0	Operetta.....	2.6
Shows and concerts.....	3.0	Basketball.....	2.5
C. Club.....	2.9	Volleyball.....	2.5
		Science club.....	2.3

was asked to rank the various activities in which he had participated according to his opinion of their value by the following key: little, some, much, and great. The average index of worth-whileness was figured for each activity for each year and for the six-year period. The indices for activities considered most worth while and those considered least worth while are given in Table IV. It is interesting to observe that all the activities ranking at the top are those which help to give the individual self-confidence in doing things better and that most of them probably have an important carry-over into adult life.

The activities that ranked low—glider club, camera club, aeroplane, checkers, soccer, volleyball, and novelty—are activities that are seldom used by a pupil after reaching maturity. Comparison of Tables III and IV shows that the number of years of participation in an activity by an adolescent is not indicative of his mature opinion of its worth-whileness.

Extensiveness of adult use of training secured in extra-curriculum activities.—How extensively are the activities offered in the schools

TABLE IV
EXTRA-CURRICULUM ACTIVITIES RANKED MOST WORTH WHILE
AND THOSE RANKED LEAST WORTH WHILE BY 266
CRESTON HIGH SCHOOL GRADUATES

Activity	Average Rank*	Activity	Average Rank
Most worth while:		Most worth while—continued:	
Business and commerce....	3.5	Student council.....	2.9
Instrumental duet.....	3.4	Track.....	2.9
National Honor Society....	3.3	Least worth while:	
Vocal duet and ensemble..	3.2	Novelty.....	1.9
Manual-training club.....	3.1	Volleyball.....	1.9
Vocal solo.....	3.0	Soccer.....	1.7
Band.....	3.0	Checkers.....	1.5
School paper.....	3.0	Aeroplane.....	1.5
Operetta.....	2.9	Camera.....	1.4
Junior-Senior play.....	2.9	Glider club.....	1.0

* 4.0 is the highest possible rank and 1.0 the lowest possible rank.

used in life after graduation? This question is answered in Table V. The reported ranks were averaged by classes, and an average was secured for the six-year period. It was found that business and commerce ranked first. All phases of music ranked fairly high. Latin club, most of the athletics, C. Club, Hi-Y, Pep Club, aeroplane, camera, and travel ranked low. These findings indicate clearly that additional emphasis might well be placed on the activities which carry over and assist in making adult life richer and fuller. Should not the school teach the pupils to do better the desirable things that they are going to do in their adult lives?

How helpful to a person after graduation are the activities participated in during his high-school career? This question was an-

TABLE V

AVERAGE RANK ON EXTENSIVENESS OF USE OF TRAINING SECURED IN
EXTRA-CURRICULUM ACTIVITIES REPORTED BY 266 CRESTON
HIGH SCHOOL GRADUATES OF CLASSES 1927-32

ACTIVITY	AVERAGE RANK* GIVEN BY CLASS						AVERAGE RANK
	1927	1928	1929	1930	1931	1932	
Academic:							
Business and commerce	3.6	3.6	4.0	3.0	3.0	2.5	3.3
Class offices	2.0	1.8	2.0	2.3	1.6	2.7	2.1
French club	1.2	3.5	1.4	1.6	2.6	3.0	2.2
Homemaking	2.0	3.0		3.0	4.0	2.9	3.0
Latin club	1.0	1.8	1.3	1.7	2.2	2.1	1.7
Librarian's club				1.0	2.8	2.5	2.1
Manual-training club	2.7	4.0	2.0	2.9	2.7	2.0	2.7
National Honor Society			2.8	2.8	2.9	3.0	2.9
Science club	3.3	1.5	2.0	3.0	2.2	2.9	2.5
Student council	2.8	2.8	3.0	2.7	1.8	2.8	2.7
Athletics—minor:							
Boxing				1.0	1.8	2.0	1.6
Checkers						1.5	1.5
Golf					1.5	3.0	2.3
Hiking	3.0	2.0	2.7		2.3	1.8	2.4
Ping-pong			4.0	1.0	1.0		2.0
Soccer	1.0	1.0	1.7	1.3	1.5	1.3	1.3
Tumbling		2.0	2.0	3.0	2.0	1.7	2.1
Volleyball	1.0	2.0	1.5	1.2	2.0	1.3	1.5
Athletics—major:							
Baseball	2.5	2.3	1.5	2.2	1.4	2.3	2.0
Basketball	2.4	1.9	1.6	1.9	1.8	2.3	2.0
Football	2.8	1.3	1.0	1.3	1.7	2.8	1.8
Tennis	1.6	2.6	2.1	2.0	2.6	2.4	2.2
Track	3.0	1.7	2.0	1.9	1.7	2.4	2.1
Clubs:							
C. Club	1.0	1.5	2.5	1.0		1.0	1.4
Girl Reserves	1.0	1.9	2.9	2.4	2.2	2.8	2.2
Glider club					2.0		2.0
Hi-Y	1.0	2.0	1.5	2.2	1.8	1.4	1.7
Natural dancing club		3.0		2.0	2.3	2.6	2.5
Pep Club	1.4	1.8	1.0	1.3	1.2	4.0	1.8
Dramatics:							
All-school play	3.0	1.8	1.0	2.7	2.0	2.7	2.2
Debate	1.5		3.6	2.6	1.7	2.6	2.4
Declamation	1.9	2.5	3.0	2.4	3.1	2.5	2.6
Junior-Senior play	1.8	2.3	2.1	2.4	2.9	2.3	2.3
Stunt night		2.0	1.7	2.5	2.0	2.0	2.0
Journalism:							
Annual	1.9	2.3	2.7	1.5	2.5	1.8	2.1
School paper	2.2	2.6	3.0	2.6	1.9	2.3	2.4
Music:							
Band	1.0	4.0	3.0	2.4	2.8	2.4	2.6
Glee club	2.5	2.5	2.4	2.7	2.5	2.3	2.5

* The activities were ranked by the following key: 1, very little; 2, some; 3, much; 4, very much.

TABLE V—*Continued*

ACTIVITY	AVERAGE RANK GIVEN BY CLASS						AVERAGE RANK
	1927	1928	1929	1930	1931	1932	
<i>Music—continued:</i>							
Instrumental solo.....	2.5	3.0	4.0	1.8	3.0	3.2	2.9
Instrumental duet and ensemble.....	4.0	3.0	3.5	2.5	2.5	3.1
Operetta.....	2.3	2.6	2.4	2.2	1.6	2.5	2.3
Orchestra.....	1.0	3.5	2.8	2.0	2.3	2.8	2.4
Shows and concerts....	2.8	2.0	2.2	2.3	1.7	2.5	2.3
Vocal solo.....	3.0	3.0	3.0	2.3	3.1	3.0	2.9
Vocal duet and ensemble	3.3	2.3	2.7	3.0	3.0	3.7	3.0
<i>Unclassified:</i>							
Aeroplane.....	2.0	1.0	1.5
Camera.....	1.8	1.8	1.5	1.0	1.5
Handicraft.....	2.0	2.0	2.3	1.8	2.0
Novelty.....	1.5	2.5	2.0	2.0
Poster and commercial art.....	2.5	1.0	3.0	2.6	2.3
Radio.....	1.0	2.5	2.0	3.0	2.1
Travel.....	1.0	2.0	1.3	1.4

swered by finding the average number of after-school activities in which the training received in extra-curriculum activities was found to be helpful to the graduates. It was found that the training received in activities while in high school was not so well suited to the adult needs of the participants as it might have been. Are there other activities which the school might provide that would be more helpful to graduates in adult life? The activities given the highest ranks on helpfulness were, in order: vocal duet and ensemble, operetta, glee club, instrumental duet and ensemble, vocal solo, declamation, Junior-Senior play, business and commerce, all-school play, and shows and concerts. Many activities were ranked low. Some graduates said that certain activities were of no help whatsoever. Latin was characterized as useless more often than any other activity. One graduate commented, "I could get along just as well if I had never heard of Latin." Other activities mentioned by some of the graduates as being of no help were volleyball, football, boxing, class-office-holding, and operetta. Several said that the only good accruing from the National Honor Society was to help them secure a part of their tuition in certain colleges.

Additional activities desired.—The graduates were asked to name extra-curriculum activities in which they would like to participate if they could return to high school. The activities listed below appear in the order of frequency of mention.

Swimming	Salesmanship	Rifle club
Cards	Public speaking	Riding
Various games	Political science	Reasoning
Skating	Use of leisure time	Play production
Current affairs	Nature study	Etiquette
Curio club	Astronomy	Sociology
Health club	Mythology	Military training
Antiques	Communication	Geology
Folk songs and dances	Garden study	Engineering
Art	Wrestling	Agriculture
Ballroom dancing	Bowling	
Avocations	Archery	

This list should assist teachers everywhere in suggesting activities when the program offered proves inadequate for the needs of the students.

CONCLUSIONS

The following general conclusions are suggested by the findings of this study.

1. Often school officials and teachers place undue emphasis on extra-curriculum activities that are of little value to the participants from the standpoint of extensiveness of use after graduation and the worth-whileness of the activities themselves.
2. Administrators in each community should observe the activities in which the adults residing there are engaging and, by encouraging the desirable activities in the school program, teach the pupils how to become proficient in them.
3. All teachers are not equally successful as activity sponsors. The interest or the lack of interest shown in an activity by the pupils depends largely on the enthusiasm, attitude, and knowledge of the sponsor. The administrator should encourage, direct, and supervise each teacher sponsoring an activity, and every prospective teacher should be trained to sponsor extra-curriculum activities.
4. More pupils should be encouraged to participate in the extra-

curriculum activities, particularly in activities that are shown to be worth while.

5. The activity program should be given more time during school hours in order that a greater number of pupils may participate.

6. Music was generally ranked high by the graduates in this study.

7. The athletics offered in high school are seldom used in adult life and, therefore, rank low in usefulness and worth-whileness.

8. According to the graduates who reported, many of the activities which are maintained in high school are of little use in later years. More practical and useful activities should be provided.

9. In recent years pupils have been participating in an increasing number of activities.

THE EDUCATIONAL BACKGROUND OF MIGRANT BOYS

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MISCONCEPTIONS CONCERNING EDUCATION OF MIGRANTS

How well educated are the thousands of transient boys who are today "beating" their way around the country on the highways and freight trains? The layman, remembering the tramps of earlier days and not taking into consideration the fact that the worst economic condition in America's history has forced a new type of migrant to take to the road, imagines the present-day transients to be ignorant, illiterate, and unintelligent. This point of view has been frequently accentuated by reports in the press, which have been based on misinformation or have been deliberately incorrect. Although those who have been specializing in work with transient boys have realized for some time that the popular picture is indeed far from the truth,¹ even many sympathetic social workers are inclined to believe that the educational background of this army of wandering youngsters is far below that of American youth in general. The transient director of one of the southern states, when asked her opinion of the average formal schooling of migrant boys under twenty-one years of age passing through that state, replied, "The education of these boys who register averages something, I suppose, in the neighborhood of the fourth grade."²

During his affiliation with boys' work in the Federal Transient Service, the writer has felt that this group of our youth is of at least average, if not superior, educational background and is not comprised

¹ "The traditional hobo is not to be found in these ranks of starving youth. The majority come from substantial American homes. A goodly number are college trained, an even higher percentage are high-school graduates, and most of the others have had an eighth-grade schooling."—Lowell Ames Norris, "America's Homeless Army," *Scribner's Magazine*, XCIII (May, 1933), 317.

² This quotation and other statements in this article from various cities and states have been taken from correspondence between the writer and transient-service directors.

of intellectual "hoboes." To ascertain objectively the degree of formal schooling of migrant boys, he made a study of five thousand such transients registering at the Los Angeles Central Intake Bureau between December 12, 1933, and July 28, 1934.¹ These five thousand boys represented every state in the Union, as well as territories and even foreign countries. The result brought out the interesting fact that the average grade reached by these five thousand boys was 9.09 and that 58.9 per cent of the boys had had at least a ninth-grade education. Eight hundred and eighty-eight of these boys were high-school graduates, 110 of whom had had one or more years of college or university work. Only forty-one had not attended school at all.

OTHER STUDIES

Attempts have been made to secure similar statistics from transient bureaus in other states, but most registration centers have not kept separate figures for boys under twenty-one years of age. Many estimates have been made, but these are of little value in an objective study. The few available statistics show a considerable variation in educational background, although no bureau has as yet analyzed a sufficient number of cases to justify the formation of definite conclusions.

Washington, D.C., reporting on one hundred cases selected at random from its files, shows the lowest figures, the average grade reached being 7.95. Even this average, however, is a far cry from "the neighborhood of the fourth grade" estimated by the previously mentioned transient director. Des Moines, Iowa, made a study of 875 boys registering there between September 15 and December 1, 1934, which "showed that the average amount of education was eighth grade." The Wilmington, Delaware, bureau made an excellent study of the boys registering in that city between October 1, 1934, and March 15, 1935. The average grade reached by this group, 822 in number, was 8.51. Omaha, Nebraska, found that the average grade reached by the boys registering there during the month of November, 1934, was 8.89. Salt Lake City, Utah, using a sample of 200 cases, reported a similar result, with a figure of 8.95. The secretary of the boys' department of the Denver district reported that the

¹ George E. Outland, "The Education of Transient Boys," *School and Society*, XL (October 13, 1934), 501-4.

average level of education of migrant boys registering there "is about nine and one-half years school." The Spokane, Washington, transient bureau made an intensive study of one hundred boys registering there between July 9 and July 27, 1934. The summary showed that the average grade completed was 9.19; the average age at completion, 16.04 years; and the average retardation, 0.82 years. The worker there commented:

It is noted all these boys are literate, only two having failed to finish the sixth grade. The modal grade finished is the eighth, but the average rests within the tenth year of schooling. Assuming entrance into school at the age of six years and subsequent promotion of one grade each year, the average of retardation is less than one year for the whole group—a record which compares favorably with the usual school group.¹

Some states have not made definite studies of educational background but make general statements about the amount of formal schooling of their transient boys. The director of Kansas, for example, feels that "the amount of education of boys registering is usually grade school, with a very small sprinkling of high-school boys." The transient director of Texas has a far different opinion concerning the education of boys passing through his state. He believes "that most of the boys coming through now are high-school graduates who cannot find work in their home town and who want to 'see the world' before they settle down to work. A number of them are boys who have failed in their Senior year and don't intend going back to school."

The available statistics, apart from those gained from transient directors are few, the most important being those compiled by McMillen² and Minehan.³

STUDY OF BOYS REGISTERING IN LOS ANGELES

In the meantime the study at the Los Angeles bureau has been continued. Tables I and II give data on the education received by 9,919 transient boys registered at that city between December 12,

¹ L. R. Montgomery, "Suggestions Pertaining to the Development of a Program of Boys' Activities." Monograph No. 3, Transient and Homeless Department, Washington Emergency Relief Administration, Part 4, Schedule No. 7 (pages not numbered).

² A. Wayne McMillen, "Migrant Boys: Some Data from Salt Lake City," VII, *Social Service Review* (March, 1933), 64-83.

³ Thomas Minehan, *Boy and Girl Tramps of America*. New York: Farrar & Rinehart, Inc., 1934.

1933, and November 21, 1934. These cases show an average schooling even higher than that found in the earlier study of five thousand boys. The average grade reached has risen from 9.09 to 9.16. The averages for boys from South Dakota and Utah are still the highest, with figures of 10.48 and 10.09, respectively. The percentage of boys having had at least a ninth-grade education has risen from

TABLE I
DISTRIBUTION, ACCORDING TO LAST SCHOOL GRADE
COMPLETED, OF 9,919 MIGRANT BOYS REGISTERING
AT LOS ANGELES BETWEEN DECEMBER 12, 1933,
AND NOVEMBER 21, 1934

Last Grade Completed	Number of Boys	Percentage of Boys
No schooling.....	54	0.54
1.....	15	0.15
2.....	29	0.29
3.....	62	0.63
4.....	160	1.61
5.....	217	2.19
6.....	441	4.45
7.....	779	7.86
8.....	2,209	22.27
9.....	1,389	14.00
10.....	1,754	17.68
11.....	1,026	10.34
12.....	1,581	15.94
College.....	203	2.05
Total.....	9,919	100.00

58.9 to an even 60. Utah again leads the way, 87 per cent of the young migrants from that state having had at least a ninth-grade education.

Most of the southern states, especially New Mexico, Texas, and Alabama, continue to bring up the rear. In fact, when the states are ranked according to the average grade reached, the last eleven on the list are southern states. This condition is doubtless accentuated by the large number of Mexican and negro boys coming from that section.

It is interesting to note that the boys from Oregon represent exactly the degree of education of the ten thousand cases as a whole.

TABLE II

AVERAGE GRADE REACHED BY MIGRANT BOYS REGISTERING AT LOS ANGELES
FROM VARIOUS STATES AND PERCENTAGE OF BOYS FROM EACH STATE
HAVING HAD NINTH-GRADE EDUCATION OR MORE

STATE	AVERAGE GRADE REACHED		BOYS WITH NINTH-GRADE EDUCATION OR MORE	
	Average Grade	Rank of State	Percentage of Boys	Rank of State
Alabama.....	8.17	47	44	44.5
Arizona.....	8.37	41	48	38.5
Arkansas.....	8.54	37	47	40
California.....	9.23	25.5	64	21.5
Colorado.....	9.33	22	66	16
Connecticut.....	8.84	35	45	42
Delaware.....	9.00	31	55	32.5
District of Columbia.....	9.70	13	70	9
Florida.....	8.90	33	57	20
Georgia.....	8.34	43	48	38.5
Idaho.....	9.31	23	70	9
Illinois.....	9.75	12	70	9
Indiana.....	9.85	5	72	6
Iowa.....	9.98	3	72	6
Kansas.....	9.67	14.5	66	16
Kentucky.....	8.59	36	51	36
Louisiana.....	8.39	40	45	42
Maine.....	9.65	16	65	19.5
Maryland.....	8.85	34	55	32.5
Massachusetts.....	9.62	17	66	16
Michigan.....	9.88	4	72	6
Minnesota.....	9.83	7	65	19.5
Mississippi.....	8.28	44	50	37
Missouri.....	9.23	25.5	58	28
Montana.....	8.50	38	43	46
Nebraska.....	9.78	10	68	12
Nevada.....	9.50	19	66	16
New Hampshire.....	9.84	6	61	23
New Jersey.....	9.10	29	60	25
New Mexico.....	8.08	49	38	48.5
New York.....	9.56	18	64	21.5
North Carolina.....	8.22	46	38	48.5
North Dakota.....	9.40	20	54	34
Ohio.....	9.82	8	75	3
Oklahoma.....	8.97	32	56	30.5
Oregon.....	9.16	28	60	25
Pennsylvania.....	9.07	30	56	30.5
Rhode Island.....	9.36	21	66	16
South Carolina.....	8.44	39	53	35
South Dakota.....	10.48	1	74	4
Tennessee.....	8.35	42	42	47
Texas.....	8.15	48	44	44.5
Utah.....	10.09	2	87	1
Vermont.....	9.30	24	60	25

TABLE II—Continued

STATE	AVERAGE GRADE REACHED		BOYS WITH NINTH-GRADE EDUCATION OR MORE	
	Average Grade	Rank of State	Percentage of Boys	Rank of State
Virginia	8.27	45	45	42
Washington	9.67	14.5	69	11
West Virginia	9.17	27	59	27
Wisconsin	9.79	9	67	13
Wyoming	9.77	11	77	2
Miscellaneous	8.02	44
Average	9.16	60

Their average grade is 9.16, and the percentage of boys having at least a ninth-grade education is 60. Both of these figures are identically the same as those found for the country as a whole.

CONCLUSION

The general grade average of 9.16 is probably the most accurate statement yet made of the formal schooling of America's wandering boys. It is certainly not one for the boys themselves to be ashamed of. Rather, food for serious thought is offered by the fact that thousands of American boys, in spite of average educational training, are not being adequately cared for economically, socially, and recreationally and are taking to the open road in an attempt to find something better somewhere else. One cannot help but wonder what part the degree of formal schooling and the educational system itself played in causing these boys to take to the road in the first place. An intensive study of case records which is now under way will probably give life and meaning to the statistical tables presented here. The eagerness with which these boys have grasped at every educational opportunity offered in the camps and lodges of the Boys' Welfare Department of Southern California would indicate that, in spite of economic difficulties, many of them would have welcomed the chance to continue their formal schooling at home, especially if the educational process were allowed to include more of the so-called "practical"

courses or if the emphasis on the regular academic subjects were given a more practical application.¹

The more one works with America's young migrants, the more one is inclined to agree with Lovejoy: "If every city would develop a comprehensive program of service to children and youth, the problem would soon solve itself. Adequate home relief, a vital educational system, and a generous program of recreation would so wed these youth—even in this time of depression—to their home cities that the stream of transiency would soon dry up."²

Not the least of the many problems which the American educational system faces is how to do its bit to stabilize youth before the temporary transients of today become the permanent nomads of tomorrow.

¹ For a very brief discussion of the types of courses requested by migrant boys in one transient camp, see George E. Outland, "Educational Desires of Transient Boys," *Sierra Educational News*, XXXI (April, 1935), 31-32.

² Owen R. Lovejoy, "Uncle Sam's Runaway Boys," *Survey*, LXIX (March, 1933), 99.

TEACHER EDUCATION IN TENNESSEE

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SOURCES OF DATA

This article reports a limited number of the findings obtained in a comprehensive study of teacher education in Tennessee which was conducted during the scholastic year 1933-34. The particular topic which is here discussed concerns the course offerings in education in Tennessee colleges in 1933-34.

In the spring of 1934 the investigator visited each of the thirty-nine colleges in Tennessee which are accredited by the State Department of Education. There are thirty-one private and eight state institutions. The private institutions are classified as follows: seventeen senior colleges and eight junior colleges for white students; four senior colleges and two junior colleges for negroes. The state institutions include the state university, the so-called "Polytechnic Institute," three teachers' colleges, and two junior colleges for white students and one senior college for negro students.

Information concerning the courses in education given in each institution in 1933-34 and the enrolments in these courses was secured as an indication of the offering in teacher preparation. It is recognized that academic subjects play an essential part in the education of a teacher, but to list all the academic courses offered in every institution with the enrolments in these courses would be an enormous undertaking. Furthermore, it would be impossible to determine how many of the students taking such subjects are preparing to be teachers. Introductory courses in general psychology, with a maximum credit of three quarter hours, were included in the enumerations, since such courses are accepted for certification in Tennessee in partial fulfilment of the requirement in professional education.

All but two of the thirty-nine colleges offered courses in education in 1933-34. One of the schools not offering education is the University of the South, at Sewanee, a liberal-arts college and theological

school conducted by the Episcopal Church. The other is Scarritt College, at Nashville, a small school of high standing belonging to the Methodist Episcopal Church, South, which enrolls only senior-college and graduate students who are preparing to do social work and lay work in the church. Vanderbilt University, which had never had a large offering in professional education, voted to abandon teacher preparation after 1933-34. Students in Scarritt College and in Vanderbilt University are privileged to take courses in education in George Peabody College for Teachers; the three institutions are located in the same section of Nashville.

It is, of course, impossible to present here the lengthy table which shows in detail the course offerings in education in the thirty-seven colleges and universities which gave such courses in 1933-34. Some interesting facts gleaned from this table will be presented, and certain generalizations which seem to be warranted by these facts will be formulated.

ENROLMENTS AND EXTENT TO WHICH STUDENTS PURSUE COURSES IN EDUCATION

In order that quantitative data from various institutions might be comparable, it was necessary to introduce a common unit of measurement. The unit introduced was called the "student-year" and was arbitrarily defined as nine quarter hours of work. This measure was deemed the most suitable because in all state colleges and most private colleges in Tennessee classes regularly meet three times a week, awarding three quarter hours of credit a quarter and nine a year.

In 1933-34 the total enrolment in the thirty-two colleges for white students was 14,964 students; in the seven colleges for negro students, 2,283; and in all thirty-nine colleges, 17,247. In the thirty-seven colleges offering teacher preparation there were 19,896 enrolments in education courses. The total number of student-years taken in education was 7,272. The distribution of these courses according to the types of institutions in which they were pursued is shown in Table I. The ratio of the number of student-years in education to the student enrolment in each institution and in each classification of institutions was calculated in order to secure a measure of the rela-

tive amounts of professional education taken by students in the various institutions and classifications of institutions. The highest ratios were found in the private junior colleges, the ratio in private junior colleges for white students being 0.558 and in private junior colleges for colored students 0.638. Both of these ratios were higher than that for the three state teachers' colleges (0.534). Interestingly enough, the lowest ratio was found for the state junior colleges for white students.

TABLE I

NUMBER OF STUDENT-YEARS IN EDUCATION TAKEN DURING 1933-34 BY WHITE AND NEGRO STUDENTS AND RATIO OF STUDENT-YEARS TO TOTAL ENROLLMENT IN VARIOUS TYPES OF HIGHER INSTITUTIONS IN TENNESSEE

TYPE OF INSTITUTION	WHITE STUDENTS		NEGRO STUDENTS	
	Number of Student-Years in Education	Ratio to Enrolment	Number of Student-Years in Education	Ratio to Enrolment
Private four-year colleges.....	2,505	0.405	627	0.538
Private junior colleges.....	917	.558	61	.638
State junior colleges.....	158	.335
State senior colleges.....	2,591*	0.408†	413	0.412
Total.....	6,171	0.412	1,101	0.482

* Distributed as follows: state teachers' colleges, 1,739; Tennessee Polytechnic Institute, 372; University of Tennessee, 480.

† The ratios in the state senior colleges for white students were: state teachers' colleges, 0.534; Tennessee Polytechnic Institute, 0.441; and University of Tennessee, 0.214.

Furthermore, if the ratios for individual institutions are examined, significant facts appear. The highest ratio (1.14) attained by any institution in the state was found in a private junior college for white students. Next was a ratio of 1.13 in George Peabody College for Teachers, which is an institution designed exclusively for the education of teachers. Next came a ratio of 1.04 in a private junior college for negro students. Other high ratios in private junior colleges for white students were 0.748, 0.732, 0.728, 0.688, and 0.629. In contrast to these high figures, the ratio in state junior colleges for white students was only 0.335. In only two of the private junior colleges were the figures low, these being 0.162 and 0.204. High ratios were found in certain of the private four-year colleges for white students,

for example, 0.743, 0.686, 0.650, and 0.634. In only three of the private four-year colleges were the figures lower than the ratio of 0.214 in the University of Tennessee; in these the ratios were 0.187, 0.142, and 0.085 (the last being the ratio for Vanderbilt University).

In the terminology employed in this article, the normal college load for a student is five year-courses, each yielding a credit of nine quarter hours. In other words, a student completing a student-year of work in five fields carries a normal load. It appears, then, that in some of the private junior colleges each student is taking, on the average, more than a student-year of professional education and is devoting more than a fifth of his entire time to this work. In several other private junior colleges the amount taken equals two quarters' work, and the average for all institutions of this character is over one semester's work.

In recent years there has accumulated a formidable body of expert opinion which favors devoting the junior-college years of a teacher in training almost exclusively to general education. This opinion, of course, carries with it the correlative judgment that specific courses in professional education should, in all but exceptional cases, be reserved for the senior-college and graduate levels in curriculums for the preparation of teachers. In the National Survey of the Education of Teachers¹ the instructors of representative courses in eighteen subject fields were asked to indicate their judgment on the question of when to introduce education courses. The summarized opinions of 759 respondents yielded the following tabulation: 84 per cent would not offer such courses below the Sophomore year; 55.4 per cent would not offer such courses below the Junior year; 8.1 per cent would not offer such courses below the Senior year; and 2.8 per cent would delay courses in professional education until the graduate level is reached. The commission which conducted the National Survey summarized its conclusions in this matter with the recommendations that in no case should a student give more than one-eighth of his time to education courses at the junior-college level; that preferably all his time in junior college should be given to the quest for general education; and that, while it is probably desirable

¹ *Teacher Education Curricula*, p. 92. National Survey of the Education of Teachers, Vol. III. United States Office of Education Bulletin No. 10, 1933.

for the teacher in training to have opportunity to observe demonstration teaching while he is in junior college, his practice teaching should come at a higher level.

If the views here presented are in harmony with sound public policy, then the situation in private junior colleges in Tennessee is not what it should be. It appears that, with two exceptions, the private junior colleges are showing a tendency to desert their legitimate field of general education and are catering to the demands of misguided young people whose one desire is to attend college long enough to qualify for a low-grade teacher's certificate. Unfortunately, the same indictment must be brought against the junior-college divisions of some of the private senior colleges. Although it was not possible to secure definite statistics showing how much of the work in education in four-year colleges is taken at the junior-college level, the amount was large, according to the reports given by administrative officers of these schools.

The evidence appears to be incontrovertible that, in the light of developing standards, entirely too many students in Tennessee are taking undergraduate courses in education, especially at the junior-college level. Evidence was secured indicating that not more than fifteen hundred new teachers without previous experience were employed in the public schools of Tennessee in 1933-34 and that the tendency is for the number of inexperienced teachers employed annually to decrease. In contrast, in 1933 approximately forty-three hundred persons secured certificates to teach who had not held certificates before.¹ It appears that literally thousands are studying education in Tennessee when only hundreds can hope to enter the teaching profession. Attention has already been called to the fact that there were 19,896 enrolments in education courses in Tennessee colleges in 1933-34 and that the courses in education totaled 7,272 student-years. The conclusion seems to be unavoidable that too many students are taking professional courses when they should be taking academic courses.

COURSE OFFERINGS

More detailed examination of specific course offerings in education in the various institutions yields some interesting facts. Few ex-

¹ Rhey Boyd Parsons, "A Study of the Relation of Supply of Teachers to Demand for Teachers," *Elementary School Journal*, XXXVI (October, 1935), 97-104.

amples of so-called "professionalization of subject matter" were reported. There seems to be little evidence that this idea is considered of significance in teacher education in Tennessee.

It appears that relatively little graduate work in education is being done during the regular session in Tennessee colleges. Except in George Peabody College, where 527 students were enrolled in graduate courses, the graduate enrolment is almost negligible. Vanderbilt University, which no longer gives courses in education, reported an enrolment of twelve students, and the University of Tennessee thirty-three students, in graduate courses in education. These three are the only institutions for white students offering graduate work in education. Fisk University, which is the only institution in the state offering graduate work for negro students, reported a total enrolment of ten students in graduate courses.

Separate courses in rural-school methods were reported in only nine institutions. The evidence indicates that less stress is being placed on the alleged unique character of the preparation of a teacher for rural schools. There seems to be a growing conviction that "the variability in the educational needs among communities has been greatly exaggerated."¹ People are coming to believe, apparently, that the special problems of the rural community are primarily economic and sociological rather than pedagogical. It is felt that, after all, the fundamentals of good teaching are the same everywhere, although, of course, the skilful teacher takes into consideration local conditions in utilizing illustrative material.

Directed teaching in some form was offered in twenty-three of the thirty-seven colleges which attempt teacher education. Three hundred and six students were doing practice teaching in elementary schools and 713 in high schools. These figures do not reflect a satisfactory condition of affairs, since less than 10 per cent of the approximately fifteen hundred inexperienced teachers who secured positions in Tennessee in 1933-34 were engaged for secondary schools.² It appears that, although several thousand persons are yearly qualifying for low-grade elementary-school certificates, few students are

¹ *The Foundations of Curriculum-making*, p. 27. Twenty-sixth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part II. Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Co., 1926.

² Rhey Boyd Parsons, *op. cit.*, p. 102.

paying the price to secure superior training for the profession of elementary-school teaching.

Further evidence of the wide variation in the specific course offerings in education in the various institutions in the state is at once apparent. The history of education is studied in only nineteen of the thirty-seven colleges offering teacher preparation. A course called "Introduction to Education" is taught in only fourteen of the colleges. There is as yet no universal acceptance in Tennessee colleges of the idea that undergraduate courses in education should be confined exclusively to the preparation of classroom teachers. Courses in school administration are given even in junior colleges. Seven of the colleges do not include the introductory course in general psychology in their programs of studies, but other schools report heavy enrolments in this course. Likewise, seven colleges omit the basic course in educational psychology. Other examples of wide variation in course offerings are shown in the following statistics concerning special courses in psychology applied to education: child psychology is offered in twenty-two colleges; adolescent psychology, in ten; psychology of elementary education, in five; psychology of secondary education, in four; psychology of abnormal and exceptional children, in three; psychology of learning, in one; and psychology of speech and language, in one.

All but three of the thirty-seven colleges give courses in methods and management in elementary schools. Thirty-two give a general course, and twenty-four give special-methods courses. The special-methods courses given are shown in Table II. Twenty-three of the thirty-seven colleges have courses in methods and management in the secondary school. Eighteen colleges have a general course, and eight have special courses. The courses given in special methods in the secondary school are also shown in Table II.

A course in tests and measurements is taught in twenty of the thirty-seven colleges. Other course offerings are as follows: principles of secondary education, in eighteen colleges; school administration, in fourteen; educational sociology, in nine; and curriculum, in eight. Each of the following subjects was taught in at least one college: adult education, character education, comparative education, current educational theories and practices, directed reading

course, guidance, hygiene, mental hygiene, parental education, philosophy of education, principles of education, school hygiene, statistics, and supervision of instruction.

Another indication of the wide variation in the programs of teacher education in the different schools is revealed by a study of the patterns of teacher preparation in particular institutions, as shown in

TABLE II
COURSES IN SPECIAL METHODS IN EDUCATION OFFERED
IN TENNESSEE COLLEGES

Field in Which Course Is Offered	Number of Colleges Offering Course	Field in Which Course Is Offered	Number of Colleges Offering Course
Elementary-school level:		Elementary-school level— <i>continued</i> :	
Arithmetic.....	11	Penmanship.....	1
Rural-school methods.....	9	Piano-playing.....	1
Reading.....	9	Woodwork.....	1
Primary methods.....	6	Secondary-school level:	
Public-school music.....	4	English.....	5
School and community activities.....	4	General science.....	4
English.....	3	History.....	4
Art.....	2	Extra-curriculum activities	2
Children's literature.....	2	Home economics.....	2
Science.....	2	Mathematics.....	2
Children's activities.....	1	Chemistry.....	1
Extra-curriculum activities	1	Latin.....	1
Geography.....	1	Modern language.....	1
Health.....	1	Social science.....	1
History.....	1		

Table III. The percentages are calculated on the basis of student-years. The comparison between Carson-Newman College and Maryville College, two senior colleges of liberal arts located in rural eastern Tennessee, at once shows wide differences in the teacher-education programs in the two institutions; yet it would seem that the needs of the students in the two colleges for teacher education would be almost identical. The comparison between Hiwassee College and Tennessee Wesleyan College, two junior colleges also located in rural eastern Tennessee, again shows wide differences, although these two schools are situated in adjoining counties and would seemingly have practically the same needs for teacher education. Marked differ-

ences also appear in the teacher-education programs in the three state teachers' colleges.

Perhaps no one would favor a strict uniformity in the teacher-education programs of the various colleges of the state, but the existing

TABLE III
PERCENTAGE THAT TIME GIVEN TO VARIOUS COURSES IS OF TOTAL AMOUNT
OF TIME DEVOTED TO EDUCATION COURSES IN SPECIFIC
TENNESSEE COLLEGES OF THREE TYPES

COURSE	SENIOR COLLEGES OF LIBERAL ARTS		JUNIOR COLLEGES		STATE TEACHERS' COLLEGES		
	Carson-Newman	Maryville	Hiwassee	Tennessee Wesleyan	Johnson City	Murfreesboro	Memphis
Administration.....	6	1		1	3	1	3
Character education.....						1	
Curriculum.....					5	2	1
Directed teaching.....	6	7	31	5	9	5	6
Educational sociology.....	4			4		1	
History of education.....	3	15			1	2	2
Introduction to education.....	24		5	16			
Methods:							
General elementary.....	27	8	23	34	13	17	23
General secondary.....	7	14		1			
Special elementary.....	3		20	9	26	37	17
Special secondary.....					5		1
Observation.....						7	
Philosophy of education.....		6					2
Principles of secondary education.....	5	16			4	5	7
Psychology, introductory course in general.....	4	17	5	6	11	9	14
Psychology applied to education.....	8	12	10	12	14	11	20
School hygiene.....				4			
Statistics.....		3					
Supervision.....					1		
Tests and measurements.....	3	1	6	8	8	2	4
Total.....	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

system can scarcely be regarded as satisfactory. It almost appears as though the whims of college administrators and the interests of professors, not the needs of prospective teachers, had been the determining factors in planning the teacher-education programs. Surely, it would be in the interest of sound public policy for some central

agency, such as the State Department of Education, to prepare suggestive core curriculums for the various types of teaching positions. Perhaps committees of college administrators and professors of education could render valuable assistance in formulating such core curriculums.

SUMMARY

All but two of the thirty-nine colleges in Tennessee accredited by the State Department of Education offered courses in education in 1933-34, and a third institution, Vanderbilt University, voted to abandon work in teacher preparation after 1933-34. Obviously, these colleges can prepare many more teachers than are needed in the public schools of the state. The evidence indicates that the number of persons taking courses in education is much greater than the number who can ever hope to secure teaching positions, although it appears that an insufficient number of students are paying the price in time and effort to prepare for expert service as teachers in elementary schools. Too many students are taking professional courses in education when they should be taking academic courses. Unfortunately, this condition is particularly characteristic of the private junior colleges. Renewed emphasis should be given to the fact that training in the subject matter of instruction is just as much a part of the professional education of a teacher as is training in methods of instruction. Wide variation exists in the course offerings in education in the different institutions and also in the patterns of teacher preparation in different institutions. It would seem that some responsible agency, presumably the State Department of Education, should assume leadership in formulating a planned program of teacher education for the state in order to attain a reasonable balance between the supply of teachers and the demand for teachers; to insure that only institutions which meet reasonable minimum requirements with respect to equipment, faculty, and facilities for student teaching shall be permitted to prepare students to enter the teaching profession; and to formulate suggestive core curriculums for the various types of teaching positions.

SELECTED REFERENCES ON THE ADMINISTRATION OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

GRAYSON N. KEFAUVER
Stanford University

LACEY A. EASTBURN
Public Schools, Phoenix, Arizona

The references included in the following list have been selected because of their availability and significance as judged by the compilers. Standards and accreditation, administrative aspects of the curriculum, and social relationships have received considerable attention during the year. Ability grouping and other means of making adaptations to individual differences continue to receive consideration.

POPULATION

519. KEFAUVER, GRAYSON N., and RUSK, JAMES. "Variation in Popularization of Secondary Education," *School Review*, XLIII (February, 1935), 112-18.

A report of a study of the attendance in secondary schools given by the United States Census reports of 1910, 1920, and 1930. The conclusions drawn are that secondary education is more popular in the west coast states than in the eastern and the southeastern sections. The popularity increases gradually from the east coast to the west coast.

SIZE OF CLASS

520. GRAY, WILLIAM H. "Methods of Instructing Large Classes in Secondary Schools of the New Democracy," *Papers of the Washington (1934) Meeting*, pp. 38-45. Bulletin of the Department of Secondary-School Principals, No. 51. Chicago: Department of Secondary-School Principals of the National Education Association (5835 Kimbark Avenue), 1934. Suggests teaching aids and materials and methods of class organization that have been found helpful in handling large classes.
521. STODDARD, A. J. "Will Sound Pictures Tend To Increase Class Size?" *Nation's Schools*, XIV (July, 1934), 16-19.

An account of an experiment in teaching classes with and without the use of sound pictures. Results show greater gains for classes of 150 when sound pictures are used than for classes of 40 without the use of such pictures. Classes of 40 do better than classes of 150 when the sound pictures are not used.

GROUPING AND OTHER ADAPTATIONS TO INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES¹

522. BILLETT, ROY O. "The Investigation of Provisions for Individual Differences," *Applying and Extending the National Survey of Secondary Education*, pp. 21-29. Bulletin of the Department of Secondary-School Principals, No. 56. Chicago: Department of Secondary-School Principals of the National Education Association (5835 Kimbark Avenue), 1935.
Gives some suggestions for further study of the problem of providing for individual differences.
523. ROGERS, FREDERICK RAND. "The Perennial Grouping Problem," *School Executives Magazine*, LIV (October and November, 1934), 35-37, 90-91.
Points out the good and the ill effects of homogeneous grouping and discusses the method of grouping and the selection of the teachers for the groups.
524. SARBAUGH, MARY E. "Repeating Courses on the High-School Level," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, XXI (February, 1935), 115-20.
A report of a study of the high-school records of 355 students in the University of Buffalo. The number of repetitions, the marks made on the New York Regents' examinations, and the college averages are compared.
525. WYNDHAM, HAROLD S. *Ability Grouping—Recent Developments in Methods of Class-grouping in the Elementary Schools of the United States*. Australian Council for Educational Research Series, No. 31. Melbourne: Melbourne University Press, 1934. Pp. xiv+234.
A comprehensive analysis of the related investigations and the current practices of ability grouping in elementary schools.

COST AND ECONOMIES²

526. CHENEY, RAY EUGENE. *Equipment Specifications for High Schools*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 612. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1934. Pp. vi+88.
An analysis of present methods of purchasing equipment for high schools on specifications.

STANDARDS AND ACCREDITATION

527. BROWN, FRANCIS J. "Criteria for the Evaluation of the Secondary School," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, XXI (March, 1935), 210-17.
A discussion of the criteria which the layman uses in evaluating the secondary school. Some suggestions are given as to methods of attack in removing causes of criticisms raised.

¹ See also Item 168 in the list of selected references appearing in the April, 1935, number of the *Elementary School Journal*.

² See also Item 51 in the list of selected references appearing in the February, 1935, number of the *Elementary School Journal*.

528. GRIZZELL, E. D. "Nation-wide Study of Standards for Secondary Education," *Junior-Senior High School Clearing House*, IX (December, 1934), 241-42.

An outline of the proposals of the Committee for Co-operative Study of Secondary-School Standards and Accrediting Procedures. The committee is composed of representatives of six regional accrediting agencies.

529. PROCTOR, WILLIAM MARTIN. "Progress in Admissions Policies among Pacific Coast Colleges," *Junior-Senior High School Clearing House*, IX (February, 1935), 345-49.

Discusses the effect of the college-entrance requirements on the high-school curriculum. Some studies are reviewed showing that students who take academic subjects in high school have only slight advantage in college over students who followed a more liberal curriculum.

530. ROEMER, JOSEPH. "The Proposed National Revisions of Secondary-School Standards To Meet the New Democracy," *Papers of the Washington (1934) Meeting*, pp. 28-38. Bulletin of the Department of Secondary-School Principals, No. 51. Chicago: Department of Secondary-School Principals of the National Education Association (5835 Kimbark Avenue), 1934.

Reviews criticisms of the present standards of the regional accrediting agencies, lists twenty-seven advantages and services rendered by these agencies in the past, and proposes eleven standards to be considered in the revision under way.

531. TYLER, RALPH W. "Evaluation: A Challenge and an Opportunity to Progressive Education," *Educational Record*, XVI (January, 1935), 122-31.

A valuable discussion of the need for changes in traditional methods of evaluation in order that evaluation may conform to the philosophy of progressive education. These new techniques are necessary in order to evaluate the work of the schools participating in the eight-year experimental study of the Progressive Education Association.

532. "What Constitutes a Good Secondary School and by What Standards Should It Be Evaluated?" *Proceedings of the National Education Association*, LXXII (1934), 497-508.

A series of short articles in which the following educational leaders express their ideas of what constitutes a good secondary school and of the standards by which it should be evaluated: Charles H. Judd, Thomas H. Briggs, Francis L. Bacon, Walter L. Bissell, Frederick Houk Law, George E. Carrothers, and Clyde M. Hill.

533. ZOOK, GEORGE F. "Accreditation of Secondary Schools in the Light of the North Central Association Report," *Educational Record*, XVI (January, 1935), 72-81.

A summary of the new accreditation standards for colleges and universities of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, followed

by a brief statement of the projected study of accrediting standards of secondary schools.

SOCIAL AND COMMUNITY RELATIONS

534. BURRELL, B. JEANNETTE, and ECKELBERRY, R. H. "The Free Public High School in the Post-Civil-War Period," *School Review*, XLII (October and November, 1934), 606-14, 667-75.
A review of the arguments presented during the quarter-century following the Civil War concerning the policy of maintaining free public high schools. The arguments are classified under four headings: (1) political; (2) social, moral, and religious; (3) economic; and (4) educational. An extensive bibliography is given.
535. EDMONSON, J. B. "Forces That Are Handicapping Secondary Education Today," *Proceedings of the Nineteenth Annual Meeting of the Department of Secondary-School Principals*, pp. 59-66. Bulletin of the Department of Secondary-School Principals, No. 55. Chicago: Department of Secondary-School Principals of the National Education Association (5835 Kimbark Avenue), 1935.
A discussion of the pressures that prevent the secondary school from exercising freedom in formulating its program.
536. ENGELHARDT, N. L. "School Buildings as Efficient Laboratories for Coordinating Community Activities," *Junior-Senior High School Clearing House*, IX (January, 1935), 261-66.
A discussion of the methods by which the school building can become an important instrument for directing and co-ordinating community activities. Emphasizes the need of having this function in mind when buildings are being planned.
537. HARRIS, ROBERT E. "Public Relations in the Junior College Field," *Junior College Journal*, V (November, 1934), 68-76.
An interesting discussion of how to make the junior college known to the "real" public by means of a public-relations counselor, school publications, and special publications.
538. HULLFISH, H. GORDON. "The Community Concept in Education," *Junior-Senior High School Clearing House*, IX (March, 1935), 394-97.
An analysis of the outcomes that may reasonably be hoped for when the school, taking the lead, has integrated itself with the community.
539. KHAIR, GAJANAN S. "Glimpses of Secondary Education in Soviet Russia," *Junior-Senior High School Clearing House*, IX (November, 1934), 139-43.
An interesting and vivid picture of the secondary schools in Russia, giving the methods of discipline, content of curriculum, and the means used by the state in determining the type of school each pupil shall attend.

540. MORGAN, DEWITT S. "Relating School and Community," *Nation's Schools*, XV (June, 1935), 14-18.
A discussion of the varied community program conducted in the Arsenal Technical Schools in Indianapolis.
541. WRINKLE, WILLIAM L. "The Function of American Secondary Education in Social and Economic Reconstruction," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, XX (November, 1934), 591-98.
The functions of the school as conceived by the United States in the past are briefly reviewed, as well as the functions of the schools in some foreign countries.
542. ZOOK, GEORGE F. "The Public and the Program of Secondary Education," *School and Society*, XLI (March 23, 1935), 377-83.
A discussion of educational problems from the standpoint of what the public expects of the high schools.

LIBRARY SERVICE¹

543. BOARDMAN, CHARLES W. "The Case for the Library-Study Hall," *Peabody Journal of Education*, XII (May, 1935), 294-303.
The arguments usually offered against the use of the library-study hall are examined in the light of the new philosophy of education.
544. JOHNSON, B. LAMAR. "The Librarian as an Associate in College Instruction," *School and Society*, XL (November 10, 1934), 632-34.
A description of the methods of co-ordinating library work and instruction at Stephens College, Columbia, Missouri.

MARKS, RECORDS, AND REPORTS

545. BROOKS, HAROLD BENNETT. "What Can Be Done about Comparative Marks and Formal Report Cards?" *California Journal of Secondary Education*, X (January, 1935), 101-6.
A summary of the arguments in favor of eliminating the comparative marking system and formal report cards from the junior high school. Reproduces a sample report card in use at George Washington Junior High School, Long Beach, California.
546. HAWK, HERBERT C. "The Personal Record File," *Junior-Senior High School Clearing House*, IX (January, 1935), 296-300.
Discusses the cumulative personal-record file that is kept for each pupil during his entire stay in the school system at Winfield, Kansas. The information included in the record, the method of obtaining the information, and the uses made of the record are included in the treatment.
547. JONES, J. MORRIS. "Is the Report Card Doomed?" *School Executives Magazine*, LIV (June, 1935), 291-94, 312.

¹ See also Item 70 in the list of selected references appearing in the February, 1935, number and Item 296 in the April, 1935, number of the *School Review*.

A cross-section of opinion on the report card as evidenced by a questionnaire study. Recommendations for further study are given.

548. MACOMBER, F. G. "Marking System Rates an 'E,'" *Journal of Education*, CXVIII (January 21, 1935), 35-37.

A criticism of the customary type of report cards and marks. A different type of report to parents is recommended.

549. WRINKLE, WILLIAM L. "School Marks—Why, What, and How?" *Educational Administration and Supervision*, XXI (March, 1935), 218-25.

A discussion of some of the fallacious assumptions involved in marking. A substitute for school marks is offered.

STAFF

550. KOCH, HARLAN C. "The Appeal of the High-School Principalship," *School Review*, XLII (October, 1934), 577-89.

Reports the results of a questionnaire study of the attitudes of 154 superintendents and 116 principals toward the work of the high-school principal and the desirability of the principalship as a profession.

551. QUANBECK, MARTIN, and DOUGLASS, HARL R. "Teaching Loads in High School," *Nation's Schools*, XV (February, 1935), 37-39.

A study of the teaching load in relation to the size of school, subjects taught, accreditation or non-accreditation of the school. A method of weighting the different subjects is used.

552. RHODE, ELLIS G., and ANDERSON, H. DEWEY. "The Tenure of High-School Principals in California," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, X (October, 1934), 53-57.

A careful study of the tenure and supply of high-school principals in the state of California. Reports the occupations into which principals go on leaving the profession.

553. SAUPE, ETHEL M., and DOUGLASS, HARL R. "The Professional Load of Teachers in the Secondary Schools of Iowa," *School Review*, XLIII (June, 1935), 428-33.

A study of the teaching load of 275 teachers in high schools of Iowa. The findings are tabulated by subjects and size of schools.

554. SHANNON, J. R. "Academic Training of Secondary-School Principals in the United States," *Bulletin of the Department of Secondary-School Principals*, No. 53, pp. 7-12. Chicago: Department of Secondary-School Principals of the National Education Association (5835 Kimbark Avenue), 1934.

A questionnaire study of the training of secondary-school principals. Gives distributions of principals by degrees and by geographical sections of the United States for the years 1918-19 to 1933-34.

Educational Writings

REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

The reorganized College of the University of Chicago.—In a recent book¹ Dean Boucher has presented a clear picture of the reorganized College of the University of Chicago. The reorganization at Chicago involves in many respects a sharp departure from traditional organization and practices, and Boucher's lucid description makes possible a timely evaluation of these innovations.

Chapter i deals with the procedure of reorganization. The results which the new plan was designed to accomplish are succinctly set forth against the historical background. Then follows a detailed description of the reorganization. Chapter ii treats of the philosophy, content, and administration of the new curriculum. The major function of the new college is to insure to its graduates the minimum essentials of a general education. This modicum of general training is tested by seven comprehensive examinations. Four of these survey the major fields of learning, one tests the student's ability in English composition, and two are tests on sequence subjects which are elected by the student. Chapter iii treats of the preparation of the course outlines, and chapter iv describes the four introductory general courses. The organization of the curriculum into four major divisions is admittedly more or less arbitrary, and procedures of evaluation are continuously in progress. Chapter v discusses the Freshman course in English composition. A psychological motivation is attempted in this course by the selection of themes which are functional in the students' courses rather than artificial themes assigned by the instructor. Chapter vi deals with the comprehensive examinations and their rôle. These examinations constitute the key-stone in the plan of reorganization. They are drawn up by an independent examination board, working in collaboration with the instructors. Their purpose is to test for the attainment of the objectives which have been set up for the courses. Student-faculty relations and reactions are discussed in chapter vii. Chapter viii describes the program of student guidance and personnel work. Eight counselors working under a dean of students are assigned in accordance with the educational and vocational interests of the students. Chapter ix deals with special instructional material—libraries, museums, laboratory demonstra-

¹ Chauncey Samuel Boucher, *The Chicago College Plan*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1935. Pp. xii+344. \$3.00.

tion exhibits, social-science field trips, and talking motion pictures. Examination results are discussed in chapter x, and in chapter xi appears a challenging presentation of the four-year college including the last two years of high school and the first two years of college. The final chapter (chapter xii) contains a summary of the principal features of the new college plan. A series of eight appendixes supplies an abundance of illustrative material covering the organization and policies of the reorganized college.

The following significant modifications of traditional practice are involved in the Chicago College plan: (1) the creation of a new four-year college unit embracing the last two years of high school and the first two years of college; (2) opportunity for the upper division and the graduate schools to begin their work at the senior-college level; (3) provision for high-school students to take college work for college credit; (4) abolition of credits and marks as measures of academic progress; (5) voluntary class attendance; (6) break-up of student lock step, each student progressing at his own rate; (7) placing responsibility on the shoulders of the students; (8) academic advancement through passing of comprehensive examinations; (9) replacement of subject-matter courses limited to narrow segments of major fields by comprehensive general introductory courses; (10) increase in *required* courses to provide adequate general education; (11) transformation of faculty-student relations as a result of measuring progress by comprehensive examinations; (12) inauguration of a comprehensive guidance program; (13) elimination of required laboratory work in general-education courses; and (14) increase in emphasis on visual education and other supplementary aids to instruction.

The following advantages are claimed for the Chicago College plan: (1) increased consciousness on the part of the instructors of the objectives of their courses; (2) continuous re-evaluation of content as a means of attaining objectives; (3) increase in student initiative and industry, produced through a deeper sense of personal responsibility; (4) assurance of a broad foundation in general education before admission to specialized fields; (5) substitution, through comprehensive examinations, of a genuine for an artificial stimulus for learning; (6) removal of all incentives for loafing, cheating, and "getting by" in classes; (7) emphasis on substance rather than form; (8) improvement of faculty-student relations, the faculty being neither courted nor feared; (9) more extensive use of the library; (10) stimulation of the faculty to highest endeavor and continuous study; (11) economy of time for superior students; (12) adaptation of curriculum to individual needs; (13) raising of standards without increasing mortality; (14) substitution of student motivation for autocratic external requirements; (15) raising of the work in the upper high school to the college level, with closer articulation of high school and college courses.

Dean Boucher's book constitutes a significant contribution to the literature of experimental college education. It presents a clear and complete description of

the courageous experimentation being undertaken at the University of Chicago and subjects its organization and policies to the acid test of scientific evaluation.

JOHN W. HARBESON

PASADENA JUNIOR COLLEGE
PASADENA, CALIFORNIA

Radio as an educational agency.—Radio as a new avenue of intellectual communication is closely watched by social and political groups interested in following or influencing its development. Educators too are interested in the more efficient use of radio for particular ends, although they commonly have the welfare of individual listeners and of society more at heart than do many other groups. Because of interest in radio as a means of educational and social influence, it is desirable to have, from year to year, an analysis and appraisal of broadcasting developments such as has recently appeared.¹

During the six sessions of the assembly of the National Advisory Council on Radio in Education that are reported in the volume, there were thirteen papers and one panel discussion on the general subject of "The Place of Radio Broadcasting in a Changing Social Order." The following papers suggest the temper of four sessions: "Radio and Public Policy," by Robert M. Hutchins; "The Changing Social Scene in 1934," by William F. Ogburn; "Radio: An Instrument of Culture or an Agent of Confusion?" by Robert G. Sproul; "The Radio and the American Home," by Grace Abbott; "Radio Broadcasting and Public Affairs," by Harold L. Ickes; "Radio in the Future," by Walter Damrosch; and "The Future of Broadcasting," by John Erskine. One session was devoted to a one-sided debate on government versus private control of broadcasting by Bruce Bliven, editor of the *New Republic*, and E. H. Harris, chairman of the Radio Committee of the American Newspaper Publishers' Association; and one to a panel discussion on "What Should Be Done To Improve Broadcasting in the United States?" The volume includes reports of varying length from twelve committees, of which those on "Parent Education," "History," "The Intercollegiate Council," and "University of Chicago Round Table" are particularly stimulating. Other reports relate to "Library Co-operation," "Research," "Museum Co-operation," "Civic Education," "Art in America," "Psychology," "Spanish," and "Labor." Sixteen pages are devoted to extracts from a paper on radio broadcasting in France. The volume also includes a list of publications by the council, lists of American and of foreign co-operating organizations, a list of officers and members of the council, and a chart showing the number of listeners in European countries in 1933.

Certain criticisms of the meetings as a whole seem justified. In assemblies of this type duplication of content by different speakers may be difficult to avoid.

¹ *Radio and Education*: Proceedings of the Fourth Annual Assembly of the National Advisory Council on Radio in Education, Inc., 1934. Edited by Levering Tyson. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1935. Pp. viii+266. \$3.00.

Nevertheless, elimination of duplication would seem as feasible as elimination of duplication in programs broadcast by different stations, which was suggested by one American paper and which apparently has been achieved in France. Moreover, in a professional conference papers which seem intended primarily to entertain, as did one or two of the papers presented at this meeting, are out of place. Some speakers became so absorbed in the educational and the cultural possibilities of broadcasting that they overlooked technical limitations. No matter how well adapted the "radio personality" nor how interesting and well prepared the program, nature limits the range of available wave-lengths. Educators should keep this fact in mind when they consider setting aside certain wave-lengths for particular kinds of programs. There seems, too, some likelihood of erring in estimating the size and the character of audiences available, particularly in view of the poor electrical facilities or other limiting factors in rural sections. Since the majority of American children live in rural areas, such factors are important in programs intended for parents or for children.

In spite of the foregoing criticisms, this report has decided value for anyone interested in the radio as an educational agency, either in formal classroom teaching or in less formal education and in adult education. Stimulating and valuable comments appear on private versus public control of broadcasting; on federal subsidy of certain kinds of programs; on the domination of broadcasting by advertising rather than by listener interests; and on the urgent need of objective research on the technical aspects of broadcasting; on types of programs needed for different population groups; on methods of organizing and presenting materials in fields as different as history, science, and art; and on methods of determining program preferences and of measuring reactions to programs.

HAROLD H. PUNKE

GEORGIA STATE WOMANS COLLEGE
VALDOSTA, GEORGIA

Evaluating modern practices in public schools.—The dearth of scientific investigations to determine the effectiveness of the activity curriculum has at times been explained on the ground that to measure objectively certain of its important aspects is exceedingly difficult, if not impossible. Proponents of the activity movement have sometimes been concerned about statements that they appear unwilling to establish their claims through experimentation. They have also regarded as unwarranted the opinion, frequently expressed, that programs advanced as representative of the best practice in the activity movement are found mainly in private experimental schools and are effective only with the small class memberships and special equipment characteristic of such schools. A desire to meet such objections explains the appearance of a monograph reporting an investigation of the effectiveness of activity programs under public-school conditions.¹

¹ J. Wayne Wrightstone, *Appraisal of Newer Practices in Selected Public Schools*. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1935. Pp. viii+118.

The procedure employed was designed to measure (1) intellectual factors, such as verbal intelligence and achievement in the regular school subjects; (2) "dynamic" factors, including social adjustment and civic beliefs; and (3) "performance" factors, embracing teacher motivation and pupil participation in class discussion. Standardized tests, questionnaires, and controlled-observation techniques devised by the author were used for measuring instructional results. Pupils were equated on the bases of intelligence quotient, chronological age, and socio-economic status. Selected schools in two large and two small cities were used for measurement of the modern or "newer-type" practices, "standard-type" schools in the same cities being used as controls. Data were secured at both the elementary and the secondary levels and were compared by means of matched pairs of pupils. Practically every comparison showed an advantage for the newer-type practices.

Failure to supply clear-cut data regarding the practices evaluated seriously weakens the scientific validity of the study. A fragmentary recital of activities carried on at certain grade levels, characterized by such statements as, "A study of birds was the basis for a unit in the fifth grade of a newer-type school" (p. 22), hardly suffices to describe the subject of experimentation in which the control technique is used. The description of the "standard-type" schools, furthermore, leads the reader to believe that the designation "obsolete" would have been more fitting than the term "standard." It also appears questionable to assume that knowledge and attitudes of pupils trained in public schools have been attained through either wholly conventional or wholly progressive types of instruction and that teachers, even if their "training and experience . . . in both standard-type and newer-type schools were, on the average, similar" (p. 26) were equal in ability. In the opinion of the reviewer, the situation called for the use of a survey technique rather than the form of technique employed. The author refrains from making sweeping generalizations from the test and questionnaire data and directs attention to a field of investigation promising valuable returns.

PAUL R. PIERCE

WELLS HIGH SCHOOL, CHICAGO, ILLINOIS

Cultural orientation in language arts.—If language is man's most significant social invention and his most indispensable instrument of thought, then it would seem not merely justifiable but desirable that the student of English or foreign languages should somewhere in his school career be afforded the opportunity for gaining a cultural overview of the history of language and an insight into the psychological processes underlying speech. Such an exposure to linguistic culture should make a valuable contribution to the student's background of interest and appreciation in the many associations of daily life, vocational as well as avocational, in which language functions. Until recently the opportunity for obtaining educative experiences in this field was reserved almost exclusively for students majoring in language study who had attained graduate standing in the

university. With the introduction of orientation courses in the language arts, however, the opportunity has been brought within the reach of an increasing number of adolescent boys and girls.

Unfortunately, developments in this field have been retarded by two impeditive circumstances. Under the title of "exploratory language" or "general language," the offerings have often served little more than a selective function in discouraging weak students from enrolling in foreign-language classes or a proselyting function in enticing desirable recruits into foreign-language courses. Dominated by this narrow "tryout" concept, the subject matter of the program was of secondary importance: a successive exposure to primer-type exercises in three or more languages, with little or no regard for the educative values of the content studied, was the rule. Fortunately, this type of offering is practically extinct; for it has been shown that the purpose for which it existed can be achieved more economically by means of any of the better intelligence or prognosis tests, or even by a ten-minute test of English vocabulary.

The second handicap was the poverty of resources in the way of suitable textbooks for younger students. For many years the only references available were technical works and treatises designed for graduate or upper-division courses in the university. In time, a few textbooks for adolescents entered the field, each of them excellent in many respects but often overstressing certain aspects of language to the neglect of others or emphasizing only one function of the program—all too frequently the somewhat negative "weeding-out" aim.

In the light of these circumstances it is gratifying to note Blancké's contribution to the cause of general language¹ in junior high school education. Drawing from the work of Sapir, Graff, Bloomfield, Jespersen, and others, Blancké has written a textbook admirably designed to give the adolescent boy and girl a cultural perspective of language growth, of the relations between languages, of word formation and derivation, and of the more important forms of linguistic change. Such chapters as "The Story of the Alphabet," "How Words Get Their Meaning," and "Language Is a Living Thing," in Part I, are fascinating reading for their interesting and pertinent examples chosen from the linguistic experiences of past generations and of contemporary society. The story of the Rosetta stone and of Sir Henry Rawlinson's discovery of the key to Babylonian inscriptions, for example, should hold the attention of every high-school boy.

In Part II the facts of language outlined in the preceding chapters are illustrated more fully by means of introductory lessons in Latin, French, Spanish, Italian, and German. Here the pupil is afforded a bird's-eye view of the civilization of the country the language of which is under consideration, an introduction to the pronunciation of the language, and an exposure to elementary reading books. The tryout function is subordinated to the cultural study of the languages on the appreciation level for purposes of comparison with each other and

¹ Wilton W. Blancké, *General Principles of Language: An Introduction to Foreign Language Study*. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1935. Pp. xiv+460. \$1.60.

with English. This section also serves as a means for illustrating the linguistic principles discussed in Part I.

Although the major values of work with this textbook are destined to be in the field of the interests and appreciations, outcomes in the way of knowledges and skill will not be lacking. Exposure to the course should enable the pupil to make measurable gains in vocabulary and spelling ability, in pronunciation, in ability to use the dictionary, in knowledge of grammar, and in *Sprachgefühl* or language consciousness, not to mention the securing of interesting cultural information concerning the contribution of the major countries of the world to the progress of civilization.

From the instructional standpoint the book has the conventional earmarks of practicability. The questions and the semi-objective exercises accompanying each section, as well as the review lessons at the ends of the chapters, are ample and psychologically spaced. Worthy of mention are the helpful suggestions to pupils and teachers distributed in the form of footnotes throughout the book. According to the Introduction, the arrangement of the material is such that the book can be used either in a semester or a year course and in classes meeting daily or on alternate days. The many opportunities which the book affords for integration of the social studies and foreign languages with work in English constitute strong points in its favor, although the incorporation of selected lists of collateral readings at the end of each chapter would doubtless have enhanced the utility of the book for this purpose.

WALTER V. KAULFERS

STANFORD UNIVERSITY

Oral reading in the secondary schools.—The necessity for extensive and varied uses of reading in the secondary school has resulted in increasing emphasis on silent reading. Training in oral reading, on the other hand, receives emphasis only when it is given special attention in classes in dramatics, speech, or other types of literary interpretation. As a result, many pupils do not develop effective habits of oral reading or discover the pleasures and satisfactions which may be derived from reading literary selections aloud. Teachers who are interested in developing appreciation of literature will welcome a book¹ designed to stimulate wider interest in oral reading among secondary-school pupils.

The book presents seven principles of oral reading, a chapter being devoted to each principle. The principles deal with creating the setting or backgrounds of appreciation, determining the coloring or mood of a selection, recognizing key and imitative words as cues to meaning, phrasing in the reading of verse, emphasizing contrasts, committing literature to memory, and using the voice as an instrument of oral expression. Each chapter contains (1) an explanation of the principle, (2) illustrations of the principle from literature, and (3) a number of

¹ H. H. Fuller and Andrew Thomas Weaver, *How To Read Aloud: A Guide to Interpretative Reading*. Newark, New Jersey: Silver, Burdett & Co., 1935. Pp. xviii+190. \$1.00.

selections for practice. The development of principles occupies a relatively limited portion of the chapters, the larger part consisting of selections. Both poetry and prose receive attention, but greater emphasis is given to the interpretation of poetry.

The explanations and the illustrations are so interwoven as to make the book practically self-teaching. A considerable amount of analytical study is necessary to follow the explanations, but the material is presented in an interesting manner. There is always a question how far analytical procedure may be carried in the study of literature without inhibiting appreciation by developing undesirable emotional reactions. The emphasis on analytical procedure is the one element in the book which might be questioned. However, this procedure appears necessary to the development of the understanding of the principles presented. Teachers of literature will find in the book a clear and concise treatment of principles and a number of literary selections suitable for practice in oral reading.

J. M. McCALLISTER

HERZL JUNIOR COLLEGE, CHICAGO, ILLINOIS

Realistic civics.—The traditional textbook in civics or government confined its attention primarily to political forms. Now and then a paragraph might appear in which the author listed in a stilted fashion the privileges and duties of a citizen, but the various units of government were not pictured as being in operation. The pupil inferred that the plan of government was almost wholly a paper plan. Curiously enough, the pupil was about right. Governments did not operate with the smooth precision which the paper plans implied. The vast and ever-present problem of personalities tended to make the writing of a description difficult and to make the description limited in its application after it was written. The typical textbook in civics was therefore incomplete and misleading.

A definite improvement in textbooks in civics has been made in recent years. Perhaps none of them shows these developments in a more complete and satisfactory manner than Lapp and Weaver's book.¹ After a somewhat traditional historical introduction the authors introduce two innovations. Under the subject of legislation they discuss the work of Congress, of legislatures, of city councils, and other boards and bodies which have legislative power. A similar plan is followed in the discussion of the executive and the judicial departments. The second innovation, which permeates the entire book, consists in a startling and yet refreshing realism. Without cynicism or faultfinding the authors succeed in convincing the reader that at last he is learning *how* legislatures actually proceed, *how* taxes are actually levied, and *how* public officials are corrupted. The unhurried style enables the authors to develop the topics which they announce.

¹ John A. Lapp and Robert B. Weaver, *The Citizen and His Government: A Study of Democracy in the United States*. Newark, New Jersey: Silver, Burdett & Co., 1935. Pp. viii+680+xxxii. \$1.80.

Although large, the book is not catalogic; the significant fundamentals are well handled.

The book has an adequate number of well-selected pictures and charts. The teaching apparatus is ample, and the references are numerous. The last chapter, which is devoted to the governmental activities of the Roosevelt administration, is clearly and impartially written. Without any compromise in scholarship the authors have succeeded in writing a book that will appeal to pupils.

EDGAR B. WESLEY

UNIVERSITY OF MINNESOTA

A notable textbook in American history.—During the school year recently begun thousands of high-school pupils will be able to use a textbook¹ in American history which possesses many unique and valuable characteristics. Harlow's book is well written, brilliant and interesting, and, without question, outstanding in its field.

The book covers the entire field from the era of discovery to the New Deal. This material is organized by situations, each of which includes a complex inter-related group of social, economic, and political forces and events. This organization is probably the most satisfactory of all arrangements. Throughout the book emphasis rests on economic and social aspects of American development without doing injury to the political events or to the interest of the narrative. Rightly, military events are passed over while the causes of war receive emphasis.

Over 760 pages and 47 chapters make a large book. This size is an advantage. It makes possible the inclusion of numerous interesting details not often found in textbooks. Pictures with descriptive statements show Lindbergh's flight to Paris, the beginning of football, the discarding of old automobile models, the importance of the horse in the America of a past generation, styles of dress, and many other interesting details.

In chapter i the author advises the pupil to "study to *understand* as well as to *know*" (p. 3). The author carries this idea throughout the book. The meaning of many events is carefully explained. For example, there are included a fine exposition of the silver issue; a clear statement of the reasons for the Manchurian policy of the Hoover administration, including a criticism of this policy; an admirable discussion of the causes of the great depression. These clear explanations are strong points of the textbook. The paragraphs dealing with foreign relations since 1932 might have been strengthened.

This book also shows the influence of the most recent conclusions of American scholarship. The relation of Polk to the Mexican War and of Johnson to Reconstruction, the activities and trial of Aaron Burr, and how the United States got into the war with Spain are topics which illustrate the up-to-date character of the treatment. Chapter xviii contains an especially good statement concern-

¹ Ralph Volney Harlow, *A History of the United States*. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1934. Pp. xiv + 760 + liv.

ing the causes of the War of 1812 and avoids any suggestion that the war was a military success. Thus, the narrative does not repeat the prejudices or the errors of former generations but states the facts as these are now understood.

The allotment of space in this book is well balanced. The Civil War divides the book into two nearly equal portions. About 3 per cent of the space has been given to the depression of 1929. The Revolutionary and the Constitutional period receives nearly a hundred pages.

The author believes that a textbook should not tell the teacher how to conduct the class. This textbook therefore omits the voluminous suggestions concerning tabulations, graphs, map-drawing, debates, and other exercises which make some textbooks resemble a greatly expanded workbook. This type of material in Harlow's book consists only of brief questions and supplementary readings given at the end of each chapter. In addition, chapter i gives suggestions concerning the use of the book. Undoubtedly, many teachers will wish that the author had included more methodology.

The book has the advantage of good maps and numerous and interesting illustrations, largely action pictures. It is well printed and substantially bound. Altogether, this book is an outstanding achievement, and no doubt it will be used extensively.

DUDLEY S. BRAINARD

STATE TEACHERS COLLEGE, ST. CLOUD, MINNESOTA

A survey of world-history.—When the one-year course in world-history was introduced into the high-school curriculum a decade or so ago, it tended to follow the encyclopedic character of the earlier courses in "general history." In recent years, however, the course has been much affected and improved by the development of social history and by the efforts to present a true world-survey of culture rather than a mosaic of national events. Webster and Wesley's textbook¹ for the course intensifies these influences and presents a useful tool of instruction.

The volume draws heavily on earlier textbooks from the pen of one of its authors, Hutton Webster, but it is new in organization, in much of its content, and in its teaching aids. It is arranged in nine instructional units, subdivided into a total of twenty-two chapters. The units deal with the following themes: "How early man adjusted himself to his environment and developed a culture," "How man in some favored regions remade his environment and achieved a civilization," "How the Greeks achieved a greater civilization than previous peoples," "How the Romans became rulers of the Mediterranean world and founded civilization in western Europe," "How civilization faltered, became Christian, and slowly regained its pace," "How changes in learning, religion, geography, and government opened the door to modern civilization," "How political, social, and industrial revolutions made the great difference between

¹ Hutton Webster and Edgar B. Wesley, *World Civilization*. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1934. Pp. xxiv+844. \$2.12.

civilizations of the past and modern civilization," "How modern life and thought were enriched, only to be endangered by a world-war," "How the peoples of the world are trying to reconstruct society." Approximately 5 per cent of the text is devoted to prehistoric times, 26 per cent to the classical period, 30 per cent to the rise and fall of medieval culture, and 39 per cent to developments since about 1750.

The textbook is clearly written in a direct, narrative style. Unusually careful attention has been given to vocabulary and sentence structure. Its pedagogical aids are carefully developed. Each unit is introduced by a concise "Presentation" or overview; each chapter is headed by pertinent and illuminating quotations from source materials. At the end of each chapter are (1) a glossary of terms used, (2) a list of review questions, (3) a series of discussion questions, (4) suggested projects and activities, and (5) a bibliography well selected for school use. There are many appropriate and interesting illustrations.

The book is compactly presented, at times undramatically but always clearly. It has the defects as well as the merits which seem necessarily to adhere to textbooks. However, as a teaching instrument, it merits careful examination by all teachers in the field that it covers.

HOWARD E. WILSON

HARVARD UNIVERSITY

Mathematics of everyday affairs.—In a day of change and rapid development the teaching of mathematics should not be allowed to be static and final. A new two-book series¹ is the outgrowth of an earlier edition by the senior authors which was published when the content of mathematics for the seventh and the eighth grades was the subject of much discussion. Since the many earlier differences of opinion about what should be taught in these grades have largely disappeared, the authors of the present series assume (1) that there is general agreement on the need of a basic exploratory course, (2) that we have a clear idea of the phases of arithmetic which are really important in everyday affairs of life, and (3) that there is agreement on what mathematical concepts should be emphasized to obtain the broad understanding which lends power to later work. On this assumption they present *Modern-School Mathematics* to provide a progressive curriculum in accord with the best thought of leaders in mathematical education, with the hope that the series will make a distinguished contribution to better teaching.

One of the outstanding points of this series is the meaningful and thorough way in which new topics are developed. New concepts are made concrete by closely associating the new concept with the child's interests and experiences and by continually applying the principles to real life-situations within the child's

¹ Raleigh Schorling and John R. Clark, with the co-operation of Rolland R. Smith, *Modern-School Mathematics*: Book I, pp. xx+364, \$0.92; Book II, pp. xvi+368, \$0.92. Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York: World Book Co., 1935.

experience. The authors give ample opportunity for thorough mastery by presenting only one difficulty at a time with specific exercises for drill.

Because of the lessening emphasis on arithmetic in the lower grades, the importance of increasing and extending the skills involved in computation is well recognized. The authors give a review of these skills, including the simplest fundamentals. The necessary drill is accomplished through timed diagnostic tests and timed practice tests, for which norms of achievement are supplied.

The emphasis which the authors place on problem-solving is in accord with present aims and objectives. Through the constant use of thought-provoking problem situations and special emphasis on analysis, the pupil is led to do his own thinking and reasoning. The problems are realistic, and they are supplied in an abundance and variety that seems sufficient for ample practice. The problems are graduated on three levels of difficulty to provide for individual differences.

The content is that which is generally agreed to be essential for a basic exploratory course in mathematics. The important and simple concepts of arithmetic, geometry, and algebra are presented. The topic of measurement receives unusually full and careful treatment. Through the laboratory method informal geometry is presented in such a way that the pupil actually experiences the concepts of length, area, and volume. The development of the formula and the graph shows their interrelationship.

There are other good features of this series, but those mentioned, together with the organization of the books, indicate a sane and well-balanced course.

A. E. MALLORY

COLORADO STATE COLLEGE OF EDUCATION
GREELEY, COLORADO

CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

GENERAL EDUCATIONAL METHOD, HISTORY, THEORY AND PRACTICE

AICHORN, AUGUST. *Wayward Youth*. New York: Viking Press, 1935. Pp. xiv+236. \$2.75.

Atlas de l'enseignement en France. International Examination Inquiry. Paris: Commission française pour l'enquête Carnegie sur les examens et concours en France, 1933. Pp. xiv+184.

FENTON, NORMAN, with the collaboration of JESSIE C. FENTON, MARGARET E. MURRAY, and DOROTHY K. TYSON. *The Delinquent Boy and the Correctional School*. Claremont, California: Claremont Colleges Guidance Center, 1935. Pp. 182. \$1.50 (paper); \$2.00 (cloth).

INGRAM, CHRISTINE P. *Education of the Slow-learning Child*. Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York: World Book Co., 1935. Pp. xii+420. \$1.80.

MACDOUGALL, WILLIAM A. *Techniques of Teacher Self Placement: A Manual of*

- Employment. Grand Forks, North Dakota: Holt Printing Co., 1935. Pp. 244.
- ROEMER, JOSEPH; ALLEN, CHARLES FORREST; and YARNELL, DOROTHY ATWOOD. *Basic Student Activities: Organization and Administration of Home Rooms, Clubs, and Assemblies*. Newark, New Jersey: Silver, Burdett & Co., 1935. Pp. xiv+368. \$2.20.
- TRYON, ROLLA M. *The Social Sciences as School Subjects*. Report of the Commission on the Social Studies of the American Historical Association, Part XI. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1935. Pp. xiv+542. \$3.00.

BOOKS PRIMARILY FOR HIGH-SCHOOL TEACHERS AND PUPILS

- ✓ American Primers. Edited by Percy W. Bidwell. *Youth in the Depression* by Kingsley Davis, pp. 48; *Strikes* by Joseph J. Senturia, pp. 54; *Friends or Enemies?* by Julius W. Pratt, pp. 60; *Money* by Marc Rose and Roman L. Horne, pp. 50; *Crime* by Nathaniel Cantor, pp. 44; *Jobs or the Dole?* by Neal B. DeNood, pp. 54; *Business and Government* by John C. Crighton and Joseph J. Senturia, pp. 48; *The Farm Business* by Roman L. Horne, pp. 60; *You and Machines* by William F. Ogburn, pp. 56. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1935. \$0.25 each.
- BERG, DAVID ERIC. *The Modern Student: How To Study in High School*. Forest Hills, New York: Universal Publishing Co., 1935. Pp. x+150. \$1.00.
- BISHOP, MILDRED C., and ROBINSON, EDWARD K. *Map Exercises, Syllabus, and Notebook in Modern European History: Since 1714*. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1935 (revised). Pp. 62. \$0.56.
- CLARK, A. MORTIMER, and KNOX, JAXON. *Progress in English*, Book II. Garden City, New York: Doubleday, Doran & Co., Inc., 1935. Pp. xii+514. \$1.40.
- COOPER, ALICE C., and FALLON DAVID. *The March of a Nation*. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1935. Pp. xii+518. \$1.72.
- FIELD, WALTER TAYLOR. *Finding the New World: From Leif the Lucky to the Pilgrims of Plymouth*. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1935. Pp. viii+430.
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